THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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MORRISON AND GIBB, EDINBURGH,
PRINTERS TO HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE.

THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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VOLUME II.

BENGAL TO CUTWA.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON, 1881.



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IRAN OR PERSIA
HERAT
BALKH
Kunduz
Bamian
A F G H A N I S T A N
Farrah
Laush
Girishk
KANDAHAR
Quetta
Dadar
KHELAT
B A L U C H I S T A N
Bela
Karachi
Cape Monze
Haidarabad
Tropic of Cancer
ARABIAN SEA
Gulf of Cutch
C U T C H
Bhuj
Rajkot
Porbandar
Gulf of Cambay
Multan
LAHORE
Umballa
DELHI
R A J P U T A N A
Jaisalmir
Ajmer
Udaipur
BOMBAY
Aurangabad
Jalna
N I Z A M S
D O M I N I O N
HAIDARABAD
Gulbarga
Bellary
M Y S O R E
Bangalore
Seringapatam
MYSORE
Beypur
Cochin
Trichinopoly
Dindigal
Travancore
Cape Comorin
Gulf of Manar
Colombo
Adas Bank
Mud Bank
Malabar
Laccadive Islands
Minikoi
I N D I A N
Maldive Islands
REFERENCES
British Territory colored ... Pink
Dependent & Subordinate Native States ... Yellow
Independent States ... Green
Railways opened
Do not opened
Roads
The numerals denote the height above sea level in feet.
This Map is intended only to exhibit the principal places, chief rivers &c. in India.


THE INDIAN EMPIRE
Prepared for Dr. W. W. Hunter's
IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles = to 1 inch
T H I B E T
LHASA
CALCUTTA
Mouths of the Ganges
BAY OF BENGAL
Gulf of Martaban
Cape Negrais
Andaman Ids.
Port Blair
Little Andaman Id.
Car Nicobar Id.
Nicobar Islands
Mergui Archipelago
Tenasserim
S U M A T R A
O C E A N
E. of 84 Greenwich
Engraved by W. & A.K. Johnston

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME II.

Bengal.—A Presidency of British India, comprising the whole River System of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, together with the upper waters of the Indus and its affluents; or, roughly speaking, all India north of the Vindhyá Mountains. The various significations which the term 'Bengal' has borne at different times will be explained in the following article (BENGAL, LOWER). The Presidency of Bengal has now a historical rather than an administrative meaning, except in the Military Department; the Indian Army being still arranged under three Commanders-in-Chief—for Bengal, Madras, and Bombay respectively—with the supreme direction vested in the Commander-in-Chief for Bengal. The Bengal Presidency includes the following five great Provinces, each presided over by a Local Government of its own, but all subject to the general control of the Supreme Government of India, with the Viceroy at its head. A full account of each of these Provinces will be found under their respective names.

THE BENGAL PRESIDENCY.

Name of Province.	Area. Sq. miles.	Population.
1. Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, . .	195,153[1]	62,815,370
2. Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, ...	110,520	42,658,449
3. Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, . .	219,714	23,021,887
4. Chief-Commissionership of Assam, . .	55,384	4,132,019
5. Commissionership of Ajmere, . . .	2,711	396,889
Total, . .	583,482	133,024,614

[1] Or 203,437 including unsurveyed tracts.

The foregoing figures are based on the Census of 1872; but they make allowance for all changes of jurisdiction reported up to 1877, and incorporated in the Parliamentary Abstract published by Command in 1878.

Bengal (or as it is more precisely designated, '*Lower Bengal*'), the largest and most populous of the twelve local Governments of British India, comprising the lower valleys and deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra; lies between 19° 18' and 28° 15' N. lat., and between 82° and 97° E. long. Excluding ASSAM, which was erected into a separate administration in February 1874, Bengal now includes the four great Provinces of Bengal Proper, Behar, Orissa, and Chhotá or Chutiá Nágpur. It forms a Lieutenant-Governorship with a population, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878, of 62,815,370; and an area of 203,473 square miles, or 195,153 excluding rivers, lakes, and certain unsurveyed tracts. Including Assam, which, until the spring of 1874, was a part of Bengal, the area was 248,231 square miles, and the population 66,856,859. Although ruled by a Lieutenant-Governor, Bengal forms the largest Administrative Division of India. It contains, exclusive of Assam, one-third of the total population of British India, and yields a gross revenue of 17 to 18 millions sterling, or one-third of the aggregate revenues of the Indian Empire. It is bounded on the north by Assam, Bhután, and Nepál; on the east by the unexplored mountainous region which separates it from China and Northern Burma; on the south by Burma, the Bay of Bengal, and Madras; and on the west by an imaginary line running between it and the adjoining Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, and by the plateau of the Central Provinces.

The word *Bengal* is derived from Sanskrit geography, and applies strictly to the country stretching south-east from Bhágalpur to the sea. The ancient Banga formed one of the five outlying kingdoms of Aryan India, and was practically conterminous with the Delta of Bengal. It derived its name, according to the etymology of the Pandits, from a prince of the Mahábhárata, to whose portion it fell on the primitive partition of the country among the Lunar race of Delhi. But a city called Bangálá, of which no trace remains, found its way into the old maps, near Chittagong, probably from the statements of L. Varthema. It is pretty certain, however, that his travels never extended beyond the Malabar coast. The Arabs had a custom of applying the name of a country to its chief city, and it was probably in this way that Varthema andother early writers picked up the idea of a great town called Bengal.

The name Bangálá first came into use about the 13th century. It is used by Marco Polo (1250-1323); and by his contemporary Rashid-ud-dín (1247-1318 A.D.). Under Musalmán rule, it applied specifically to the Gangetic delta, like the Banga of Sanskrit times, although the later Muhammadan conquests to the east of the Brahmaputra were eventually

included within it. In their distribution of the country for fiscal purposes, it formed the central Province of a Governorship, including Behar on the north-west, and Orissa on the south-west, jointly ruled by one Deputy of the Delhi Emperor. Under the English, the name has at different periods borne very different significations. Francis Fernandez applies it to the country from the extreme east of Chittagong to Point Palmyras in Orissa, with a coast line which Purchas estimates at 600 miles, running inland for the same distance, and watered by the Ganges. This territory would include the Muhammadan Province of Bengal, with parts of Behar and Orissa. The loose idea thus derived from old voyagers became stereotyped in the archives of the East India Company. All its north-eastern factories, from Balasor, on the Orissa coast, to Patná, in the heart of Behar, belonged to the 'Bengal Establishment;' and as our conquests crept higher up the rivers, the term came to be applied to the whole of Northern India. But during the last forty years, the tendency to a greater exactitude in the civil administration has gradually brought about a corresponding precision in the use of Indian geographical names. The North-Western Provinces date their separate existence from 1832. Since that year, they stand forward under a name of their own as the North-Western Provinces, in contradistinction to the Lower Provinces of Bengal. Later annexations have added new territorial entities, and the northern Presidency is now mapped out into four separate Governments—the Punjab, the North-Western Provinces with Oudh, Lower Bengal, and Assam.

Three of the Provinces of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal—namely, Bengal Proper, Behar, and Orissa—consist of great river valleys; the fourth, Chhotá or Chutiá Nágpur, is a mountainous region, which separates them from the Central India plateau. Orissa embraces the rich deltas of the Mahánadí and the neighbouring rivers, bounded by the Bay of Bengal on the south-east, and walled in on the north-west by Tributary Hill States. Proceeding eastward, the Province of Bengal Proper stretches along the coast from Orissa to British Burma, and inland from the seaboard to the Himálayas. Its southern portion is formed by the united deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra; its northern consists of the valleys of these great rivers and their tributaries. Behar lies on the north-west of Bengal Proper, and comprises the higher valley of the Ganges, from the spot where it issues from the territories of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. Between Behar and Orissa, but stretching farther westward, and deep into the hill country, lies the Province of Chhotá or Chutiá Nágpur.

Physical Aspects.—The territory, thus hemmed in, except at its north-western angle, by the unchangeable landmarks of Nature, consists chiefly of two broad river valleys. By the western one, the Ganges brings down the wealth and the accumulated waters of Northern India.

The eastern valley forms the route by which the Brahmaputra, after draining the Thibetan plateau far to the north of the Himálayas, and skirting round their passes not far from the Yang-tse-Kiang and the great river of Cambodia, ends its tortuous journey of 1800 miles. These valleys, although for the most part luxuriant alluvial plains, are diversified by spurs and peaks thrown out from the great mountain systems which wall them in on the north-east and south-west. They produce tea, indigo, turmeric, the opium poppy, innumerable grains and pulses, pepper, ginger, betel-nut, quinine, and many costly spices and drugs, oil-seeds of sorts, cotton, the silk mulberry, inexhaustible crops of jute and other fibres; timber, from the feathery bamboo and coronetted palm to the iron-hearted *sál* tree. In short, every vegetable product which feeds and clothes a people, and enables it to trade with foreign nations, abounds. Nor is the country destitute of mineral wealth. The Districts near the sea consist entirely of alluvial formations; and, indeed, it is stated that no substance so coarse as gravel occurs throughout the Delta, or in the heart of the Provinces within 300 miles of the river mouths. But amid the hilly spurs and undulations on either side, coal, and iron and copper ores, hold out a new future to Bengal, as capital increases under the influence of a stable Government, and our knowledge of the country becomes more exact. The coal-fields on the west have for a century been worked by English enterprise, and now yield between half a million and a million tons per annum. In the east, the coal-measures of Assam, which Province was separated from Bengal in 1874, still await the opening out of the country and improved facilities of transport. The climate varies from the snowy regions of the Himálayas, to the tropical vapour-bath of the Delta and the burning winds of Behar. The ordinary range of the thermometer on the plains is from about 52° F. in the coldest month to 103° in the shade in summer. Anything below 60° is considered very cold; and by care in the hot weather, the temperature of well-built houses rarely exceeds 95°. The rainfall also varies greatly; from 500 to 600 inches per annum at CHARA PUNJI (Cherra Poonjee), Assam, to an average of about 37 inches in Behar, and about 65 inches on the Delta.

The Rivers.—The most salient feature of Bengal is its rivers. These untaxed highways bring down, almost by the motive power of their own currents, the crops of Northern India to the seaboard,—an annual harvest of wealth to the trading classes, for which the population of the Lower Provinces neither toil nor spin. Lower Bengal, indeed, exhibits the two typical stages in the life of a great river. In the northern Districts, the rivers run along the valleys, receive the drainage from the country on either side, absorb broad tributaries, and rush forward with an ever-increasing volume. But near the centre of the

Provinces they enter upon a new stage in their career. Their main channels bifurcate, and each new stream so created throws off its own set of distributaries to right and left. The country which they thus enclose and intersect forms the Delta of Bengal. Originally conquered by fluvial deposits from the sea, it now stretches out as a vast dead level, in which the rivers find their velocity checked. Their diminished currents cease to carry along the silt which they have brought down from Northern India. The streams, accordingly, deposit their alluvial burden in their channels and upon their banks, so that by degrees their beds rise above the level of the surrounding country. In this way, the rivers in the Delta slowly build themselves up into canals, which every autumn break through or overflow their margins, and leave their silt upon the adjacent flats. Thousands of square miles in Lower Bengal thus receive each year a top-dressing of virgin soil, brought free of expense from the Himálayas,—a system of natural manuring which defies the utmost power of over-cropping to exhaust its fertility. As the rivers creep farther down the Delta, they become more and more sluggish, and their bifurcations and interlacings more complicated. The last scene of all is a vast amphibious wilderness of swamp and forest, amid whose solitudes their network of channels insensibly merges into the sea. Here the perennial struggle between earth and ocean goes on, and all the ancient secrets of land-making stand disclosed. The rivers, finally checked by the dead weight of the sea, deposit their remaining silt, which emerges as banks or blunted promontories, or, after years of battling with the tide, adds a few feet or, it may be, a few inches to the foreshore.

THE GANGES, which enters on the western frontier, and runs diagonally across Bengal, gives to the country its peculiar character and aspect. About 220 miles from its mouth, it spreads out into numerous branches, forming a Delta. The Delta, where it borders on the sea, becomes a labyrinth of creeks and rivers, running through the dense forests of the SUNDARBANS, and exhibiting during the annual inundation the appearance of an immense sea. Higher up, the rice-fields, to the extent of thousands of square miles, are submerged. The scene presents to a European eye a panorama of singular novelty and interest,—the crops covered with water to a great depth; the ears of grain floating on the surface; the stupendous embankments, which restrain, without altogether preventing, the excesses of the inundations; and peasants in all quarters going out to their daily work with their cattle in canoes or on rafts. The navigable streams which fall into the Ganges intersect the country in every direction, and afford abundant facilities for internal communication. In many parts, boats can approach, by means of lakes, rivulets, and water-courses, to the door of almost every cottage. The lower region of the Ganges is the richest and most productive portion

of Bengal, and abounds in valuable produce. Another mighty river by which Bengal is intersected is the BRAHMAPUTRA, the source of whose remotest tributary is on the opposite or northern side of the same HIMALAYAN Mountains from whose southern slopes the Ganges takes its rise. These two rivers proceed in diverging courses until they are more than 1200 miles asunder; and again approaching each other, intermix their waters before they reach the ocean. The other principal rivers in Bengal (all of which see separately) are—the GOGRA (Ghagrá), SON (Soane), GANDAK, KUSI, TISTA; the HUGLI (Hoogly), formed by the junction of the Bhágirathí and Jalangí; farther to the west, the DAMODAR and RUPNARAYAN; and in the south-west, the MAHANADI, or 'Great River' of Orissa. In a level country like Bengal, where the soil is composed of yielding and loose materials, the courses of the rivers are continually shifting, from the wearing away of their different banks, or from the water being turned off, by obstacles in its course, into a different channel. As the new channel is gradually widened, the old bed of the river is left dry. The new channel into which the river flows is, of course, so much land lost, while the old bed constitutes an accession to the adjacent estates. Thus, one man's property is diminished, while that of another is enlarged or improved; and a distinct branch of jurisprudence has grown up, the particular province of which is the definition and regulation of the alluvial rights alike of private property and of the State.

Mineral Products.—A very brief enumeration has been given of the principal minerals of Bengal. The coal mines of RANIGANJ, within Bardwán District, however, demand somewhat more special notice. In this field there were, in 1872, altogether 44 mines at work, of which 19 turned out more than 10,000 tons of coal per annum a-piece. In the larger and better mines, coal is raised by steam power from pits and galleries; and in the smaller mines or workings, by hand labour from open quarries. In the Rániganj coal-field alone, 61 steam engines, with an aggregate of 867 horse-power, were at work. Only one seam or set of seams of less thickness than 8½ feet was worked, and the average thickness of the seams at the Rániganj mines is about 15 or 16 feet. The pits are mostly shallow; very few being more than 150 feet deep. The Bengal Coal Company, with its mines at Rániganj and to the westward, is able to raise 220,000 tons of coal annually. Salt manufacture was formerly a Government monopoly, principally carried on along the sea-coast of Orissa and in Midnapur District. A description of the manufacture of salt by means of evaporation by fire is given in the article on BALASOR. The process of manufacture by means of solar evaporation will be described in the Account of PURI DISTRICT. The State abandoned its monopoly of salt manufacture many years ago, and it is now carried on by private parties subject to a Govern-

ment duty (of 8s. 10d. up to 1877, now of 7s. 6d. per cwt.), levied at the place of production. Salt duties vary in different parts of India, necessitating the maintenance of expensive and cumbrous customs lines. In 1874, a system was inaugurated towards the abolition of the Bengal customs line, by means of a graduated scale of salt duty within Orissa, rising by degrees from the Madras duty of 4s. 10d. a cwt. in the extreme south of the Province, to the Bengal duty (then 8s. 10d. a cwt.) in the extreme north. At the present day, almost the whole of the salt consumed in Bengal is imported by Liverpool ships from the Cheshire mines. Small quantities are still manufactured in Orissa and the Twenty-four Parganás under excise rules. In 1872, the Bengal salt duty yielded a net revenue of £2,610,286. The customs duty on imported salt was Rs. 3. 4. 0 per *maund* (or say 8s. 10d. per cwt.) from March 1861, but by recent legislation (1877) it has been reduced to Rs. 2. 12. 0 per *maund*, or say 7s. 6d. per cwt. Several attempts have been made to work the iron ores of Bengal, but hitherto without any decisive success from the mercantile point of view.

History.—The history of so large a Province as Bengal forms an integral part of the general history of India. The northern part, Behar, ranked as a powerful kingdom in Sanskrit times, and its chief town, Patná, is identified as the *Palibothra* of the Greeks. The Delta or southern part of Bengal lay beyond the ancient Sanskrit polity, and was governed by a number of local kings belonging to a pre-Aryan stock. The Chinese travellers, Fa Hian in the 5th century, and Hiouen Thsang in the 7th century, found the Buddhist religion prevailing throughout Bengal, but already in a fierce struggle with Hinduism—a struggle which ended about the 9th or 10th century in the general establishment of the latter faith. Until the end of the 12th century, Hindu princes governed in a number of petty principalities; till, in 1199, Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khiljí was appointed to lead the first Musalmán invasion into Bengal. The Muhammadan conquest of Behar dates from 1200 A.D., and the new power speedily spread southwards into the Delta. From about this date until 1336, Bengal was ruled by governors appointed by the Muhammadan Emperors in the north. From 1336 to 1539, its governors asserted a precarious independence, and arrogated the position of sovereigns on their own account. From 1539 to 1576, Bengal passed under the rule of the Pathán or Afghán dynasty, which commonly bears the name of Sher Sháh. On the overthrow of this house by the powerful arms of Akbar, Bengal was incorporated into the Mughal Empire, and administered by governors appointed by the Delhi Emperor, until the treaties of 1765, which placed Bengal, Behar, and Orissa under the administration of the East India Company. Until 1854, Bengal remained under the Governor-General of India as Governor, his place

being supplied, during his absence in other parts of India, by a Deputy-Governor appointed from the members of his council. By the statute 16 and 17 Vict. cap. 95, the Governorship of Bengal was separated from the Governor-Generalship of India, and Bengal was erected into a Lieutenant-Governorship. The first Lieutenant-Governor was appointed in 1854, and the constitution of the Government of Bengal still continues on this basis, except that the Lieutenant-Governor is now appointed subject to the approval of Her Majesty. The foregoing summary must suffice for the general history of Bengal; but various episodes will be narrated under the towns or places where they occurred. It is impossible to enter here on any historical details beyond a bare list of the rulers.

First Period.

EARLY MUHAMMADAN CONQUERORS OF BENGAL.

A.D.	A H.	Governors of Bengal.	Emperors of Hindustan.	Kings of England.
1199	595	Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khiljí	Muiz-ud-dín (*alias* Shahab-ud-dín) Ghoní	John
1205	602	Muhammad Sherán Khiljí	Kutab-ud-dín Aibak	Do.
1208	605	Alí Mardán Khiljí	Do.	Do.
1211	608	Sultán Ghiyas-ud-dín	Altamsh	Henry III.
1226	624	Nasír-ud-dín, son of Emp. Altamsh	Do.	Do.
1229	627	Alá-ud-dín Jáni	Do.	Do.
1229	627	Sáif-ud-dín Aibak	Do.	Do.
1233	631	Tughán Khán	Sultáná Riziá	Do.
1244	642	Táimur Khán	Alá-ud-dín Mas'úd	Do.
1244	642	Malik Yuzbeg Tughril Khán	Do.	Do.
1258	656	Jalál-ud-dín Más'úd	Nasír-ud-dín Mahmúd	Do.
1258	657	Izz-ud-dín Balban (afterwards Emperor)	Do.	Do.
1259	657	Arslán Khán Khwarizmi	Do.	Do.
1260	659	Arslán Tátar Khán	Do.	Do.
1277?	676?	Tughrál (Sultán Majhiss-ud-dín)	Ghiyás-ud-dín Balbán	Edward I.
1282	681	Nasír-ud-dín Bughrá Khán (son of Balban)	Do.	Do.
1291	691	Rukn-ud-dín Kai Káús	Muiz-ud-dín Kaikábád; Firoz Sháh Khiljí; Alá-ud-dín Khiljí	Do.
1302	702	Shams-ud-dín Firoz Sháh	Alá-ud-dín Khiljí	Edward II.
1318	?	Shahab-ud-dín Bughrá Sháh	Mubárik Sháh	Do.
?	?	Ghiyás-ud-dín Bahádur Sháh	Tughlak Sháh	
?	?	Nasír-ud-dín	Muhammad Tughlak	
?	?	Kadr Khán	Do.	

Second Period.

INDEPENDENT MUHAMMADAN KINGS OF BENGAL.

A.D.	A.H.	Governors of Bengal.	Emperors of Hindustan.	Kings of England.
1336	737	Fakr-ud-dín Mubárik Sháh	Muhammad Tughlak	Edward III.
1341	742	Alá-ud-dín Alí Sháh (in Gaur)	Do.	Do.
1346	?	Ilyas Sháh (in Gaur)	Do.	Do.
1346	?	Gházi Sháh (in the East)	Do.	Do.
1352	?	Ilyas Sháh (over all)	Firoz Sháh (Tughlak)	Do.
1358	759	Sikandar Sháh	Do.	Do.
1370	772	Ghiyas-ud-dín Sháh (in the East)	Do.	Richard II.
1390	792	Ghiyas-ud-dín (over all)	Muhammad Sháh	Do.
1397	799	Hamzah, Sultán Asalátin	Masirát Sháh	Do.
?	?	Shahab-ud-dín Bayazid Sháh	Mahmúd Sháh	Henry IV.
1404	807	Rájá Ganes	Do.	Do.
1414	817	Jalál-ud-dín Muhammad Sháh	Khizir Khán	Henry V.
1433	836	Ahmad Sháh	Mubárik Sháh	Henry VI.
1442	845	Nasír-ud-dín Mahmúd Sháh	Alam Sháh	Do.
1460	864	Barbak Sháh	Bahlol Lodi	Edward IV.
1474	879	Yusaf Sháh	Do.	Do.
1481	886	Fateh Sháh	Do.	Richard III.
1487	892	Sultán Sháhzádah	Do.	Henry VII.
1487	?	Sáif-ud-dín Firoz Sháh	Do.	Do.
1491	896	Nasír-ud-dín Mahmúd	Sikandar Lodi	Do.
1492	897	Muzaffar Sháh	Do.	Do.
1494	899	Sayyid Husáin Sháh	Do.	Do.
1521	927	Nasirát Sháh	Ibráhim Lodi and Baber	Henry VIII.
1532	939	Firoz Sháh III.	Humáyun	Do.
1533	940	Mahmúd Sháh (the last substantial King of Bengal)	Do.	Do.

Third Period.

BENGAL UNDER THE AFGHAN OR PATHAN DYNASTY. (SHER SHAH.)

1539	946	Khizir Khán	Sher Sháh	Henry VIII.
1545	952	Muhammad Sur	Salím Sháh	Edward VI.
1555	962	Bahádur Sháh	Muhammad Adíl	Mary
1560	968	Jalál-ud-dín	Do.	Elizabeth
1564	971	Suláiman Keráni	Do.	Do.
1573	981	Dáúd Khán	Akbar	Do.

FOURTH PERIOD.

GOVERNORS OF BENGAL UNDER THE MUGHAL DYNASTY.

A.D.	A.H.	Governors of Bengal.	Emperors of Hindustan.	Kings of England.
1576	984	Khán Jhán	Akbar	Elizabeth
1579	987	Muzaffar Khán	Do.	Do.
1580	988	Rájá Todar Mall	Do.	Do.
1582	990	Khán Azím	Do.	Do.
1584	992	Sháhbaz Khán	Do.	Do.
1589	997	Rájá Mán Sinh	Do.	Do.
1606	1015	Kutal-ud-dín Kokaltásh	Do.	Do.
1607	1016	Jahángír Kuli	Jahángír	James I.
1608	1017	Shaikh Islám Khán	Do.	Do.
1613	1022	Kasím Khán	Do.	Do.
1618	1028	Ibráhim Khán	Do.	Do.
1622	1032	Sháh Jahán	Do.	Do.
1625	1033	Khanazád Khán	Do.	Do.
1626	1035	Mukarram Khán	Do.	Charles I.
1627	1036	Fidái Khán	Do.	Do.
1628	1037	Kasím Khán Jabuni	Do.	Do.
1632	1042	Azím Khán	Sháh Jahán	Do.
1637	1047	Islám Khán Mushedi	Do.	Do.
1639	1049	Sultán Shujá	Do.	Do.
1660	1070	Mír Júmlá	Do.	Do.
1664	1074	Shaistá Khán	Aurangzeb	Charles II.
1677	1087	Fidái Khán	Do.	Do.
1678	1088	Sultán Muhammad Azím	Do.	Do.
1680	1090	Shaistá Khán	Do.	Do.
1689	1099	Ibráhim Khán II.	Do.	Do.
1697	1108	Azím Ushán	Do.	William III.
1704	1116	Murshíd Kulí Khán	Do.	Anne
1725	1139	Shujá-ud-dín Khán	Do.	George II.
1739	1151	Sarfaraz Khán	Muhammad Sháh	Do.
1740	1153	Alí Vardí Khán	Do.	Do.
1756	1170	Siráj-ud-daulá	Do.	Do.
			Alamgír	Do.

The lists for the first three periods have been compiled (1879) chiefly by Col. Yule, C.B., from materials supplied by the late Professor Blochmann, Mr. E. Thomas' *Chronicle of the Pathán Kings of Delhi*, and Ravenshaw's *Gaur*. They are based upon native writers, but have been carefully corrected from coins and inscriptions. The list for the fourth period is taken from Major Stewart's *History of Bengal.*

FIFTH PERIOD.

GOVERNORS OF BENGAL AND GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA UNDER THE EAST INDIA COMPANY, 1765–1854.

1765, Lord Clive; 1767, Harry Verelst; 1769, John Cartier; 1772, Warren Hastings; 1785, Sir John Macpherson; 1786, Marquis Cornwallis; 1793, Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth); 1798, Sir Alured Clarke (*pro tem.*); 1798, Marquis Wellesley; 1805, Marquis Cornwallis; 1806, Earl of Minto; 1813, Marquis of Hastings; 1823, John Adam (*pro tem.*); 1823, Earl Amherst; 1828, Lord William Cavendish Bentinck; 1835, Sir Charles Metcalf; 1836, Earl Auckland; 1842, Earl of Ellenborough; 1844, Viscount Hardinge; 1848, Marquis of Dalhousie.

Sixth Period.

BENGAL UNDER LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS, 1854–1879.

Sir Frederic Halliday, 1854; Sir John Peter Grant, 1859; Sir Cecil Beadon, 1862; Sir William Grey, 1867; Sir George Campbell, 1871; Sir Richard Temple, 1874; The Honourable Sir Ashley Eden, 1877.

English Connection with Bengal.—The East India Company formed its earliest settlements in Bengal in the first half of the 17th century. These settlements were of a purely commercial character. In 1620, one of the Company's factors dates from Patna; in 1624-36, the Company established itself, by the favour of the Emperor, on the ruins of the ancient Portuguese settlement of Pippli, in the north of Orissa; in 1640-42, the patriotism of an English surgeon, Mr. Gabriel Boughton, obtained for us establishments at Balasor (also in Orissa), and at Hugli, 25 miles above Calcutta. The vexations and extortions to which the Company's early agents were subjected, almost induced them more than once to abandon the trade, and in 1677-78 they threatened to withdraw from Bengal altogether. In 1685, the Bengal factors, driven to extremity by the oppression of the Mughal governors, threw down the gauntlet; and, after various successes and hairbreadth escapes, they fled from Húglí down the river in 1686 to the three villages which have grown up into Calcutta, the metropolis of India. During the next fifty years, the English had a long and hazardous struggle, alike with the Mughal governors of the Province, and with the Marhattá armies which invaded it. In 1756, this struggle culminated in the great outrage known as the Black Hole of Calcutta, followed by Clive's battle of Plassey and the re-capture of Calcutta, which avenged it. That battle, and the subsequent years of confused fighting, established our military supremacy in Bengal, and procured the treaties of 1765, by which the Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa passed under our administration. To Warren Hastings (1772-85) belongs the glory of consolidating our power, and converting a military occupation into a stable civil government. To another member of the civil service, John Shore (1786-98), afterwards Lord Teignmouth, is due the formation of a regular system of Anglo-Indian legislation. Acting through Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General, he ascertained and defined the rights of the landholders in the soil. These landholders under the native system had, for the most part, started as collectors of the revenues, and gradually acquired certain prescriptive rights as quasi-proprietors of the estates entrusted to them by the Government. In 1793, Lord Cornwallis declared their rights perpetual, and made over the land of Bengal to the previous quasi-proprietors or *zamíndárs*, on condition of the payment of a fixed land tax. This great piece of legislation is known as the Permanent Settlement of the Land Revenue. But the

Cornwallis Code, while defining the rights of the proprietors, failed to give adequate recognition to the rights of the under-tenants and the cultivators. His Regulations formally *reserved* the latter class of rights, but did not legally define them, or enable the husbandmen to enforce them in the courts. After half a century of rural disquiet, the rights of the cultivators were at length carefully formulated by Act x. of 1859, and by several subsequent enactments based upon it. This series of measures, now known as the Land Law of Bengal, effected for the rights of the under-holders and cultivators what the Cornwallis Code in 1793 had effected for those of the superior landholders. The status of each class of person interested in the soil, from the Government as suzerain, through the *zamíndárs* or superior landholders, the intermediate tenure-holders, and the under-tenants, down to the actual cultivator, is now clearly defined. The Land Act dates from the first year after the transfer of India from the Company to the Crown; for meanwhile the Mutiny had burst out in 1857. The transactions of that revolt chiefly took place in Northern India, and will be summarised under INDIA and the NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES; the uprising, although fierce, and for a time perilous to our supremacy, was quickly put down. In Bengal it began at BARRACKPORE, was communicated to DACCA in Eastern Bengal, and for a time raged in Behar, producing the memorable defence of the billiard-room at ARRAH by a handful of civilians and Síkhs—one of the most splendid pieces of gallantry in the history of the British arms. Since 1858, when the country passed to the Crown, the history of Bengal has been one of steady and peaceful progress. The two great lines of railway, the East Indian and the Eastern Bengal, have been completed, and a third, the Northern Bengal Railway, approaching completion. Trade has enormously expanded; new centres of commerce have sprung up in spots which not long ago were silent jungles. Fresh staples of trade, such as tea and jute, have rapidly attained importance; and the coal-fields and iron ores are beginning to open up prospects of a novel and splendid era in the internal development of the country.

Population.—Within the Provinces under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal dwell a great congeries of peoples, of widely diverse origin, speaking different languages, and representing far separated eras of civilisation. They numbered in 1872 (including Assam, which then formed part of Bengal), 66,856,859 souls, or over a million and a quarter more than the whole inhabitants of England and Wales, Sweden, Norway, Denmark (with Jutland), Greece, and all the Ionian Islands, with the total white population, Indians and Chinese, of the United States. I shall first exhibit the population of Bengal according to the Census of 1872. Several changes have since taken place, including the transfer

[*Sentence continued on page* 14.

BENGAL, *from Census Report of* 1872, *excluding the Assam Valley, but including Sylhet District.*

District.	Area. Square miles.	Population.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	Others.	Population per sq. mile.	Land Revenue (approximate).
BENGAL PROPER.								
1. Bardwán,	3,523	2,034,745	1,679,363	348,024	890	6,468	578	£306,454
2. Bánkurá,	1,346	526,772	487,786	13,500	70	25,416	391	45,065
3. Bírbhúm,	1,344	695,921	576,908	111,795	249	6,969	518	73,223
4. Midnapur,	5,082	2,540,963	2,285,568	157,047	613	97,735	500	203,409
5. Húglí with Howrah,	1,424	1,488,556	1,186,435	299,025	2,583	513	1,045	144,848
6. Twenty-four Parganás,	2,788	2,210,047	1,307,087	887,853	13,767	1,340	793	2,440
7. Calcutta,	8	447,601	291,194	133,131	21,356	1,920	55,950	170,287
8. Nadiyá,	3,421	1,812,795	821,032	984,106	5,977	1,680	530	105,080
9. Jessor,	3,658	2,075,021	915,413	1,151,936	1,142	6,530	567	103,184
10. Murshidabad,	2,578	1,353,625	733,056	603,564	537	16,469	525	135,883
11. Dinájpur,	4,126	1,501,924	702,235	793,215	271	6,203	364	175,566
12. Máldah,	1,813	676,426	356,298	310,890	43	9,193	373	32,414
13. Rájsháhí,	2,234	1,310,729	286,870	1,017 979	103	5,777	587	102,681
14. Rangpur,	3,476	2,149,973	857,298	1,291,465	73	1,136	619	96,662
15. Bográ,	1,501	689,467	130,644	556,620	22	2,181	459	44,160
16. Pábná,	1,966	1,211,594	361,314	847,227	98	2,955	616	24,066
17. Dárjiling,	1,234	94,712	69,831	6,248	556	18,077	77	6,376
18. Jalpaigurí,[1]	2,906	418,665	182,375	144,980	36	594	144	26,547
19. Kuch Behar,[2]	1,307	532,565		Details not available.			407	...
20. Dacca,	2,897	1,852,993	793,789	1,050,131	7,844	1,229	640	48,996
21. Farídpur,	1,496	1,012,589	420,988	588,299	463	2,839	677	32,764
22. Bákarganj,	4,935	2,377,433	827,393	1,540,965	4,852	4,223	482	151,128
23. Maimansinh,	6,293	2,349,917	817,963	1,519,635	124	12,195	373	84,955
24. Sylhet (*now in Assam*),	5,383	1,719,539	859,234	854,131	159	6,015	319	48,311
25. Chittagong,	2,498	1,127,402	301,138	795,013	1,084	30,169	451	76,089
26. Noákhálí,	1,557	713,934	180,253	533,053	552	76	459	56,161
27 Tipperah,	2,655	1,533,931	540,156	993,564	146	65	578	100,322
28. Chittagong Hill Tracts,	6,882	69,607	598	1,378	31	67,600	10	...
Hill Tipperah State,	3,867	35,262		Details not available.			9	...
Total,	84,198	36,564,708	17,972,219	17,534,774	63,641	335,567	433	£2,397,071
BEHAR.								
29. Patná,	2,101	1,559,638	1,363,291	192,988	2,700	659	742	£145,050
30. Gayá,	4,718	1,949,750	1,729,899	219,332	203	316	413	136,261
31. Sháhabad,	4,385	1,723,974	1,590,643	132,671	461	199	393	174,591
32 Tirhut,	6,343	4,384,706	3,854,991	528,605	716	394	691	176,702
33. Sáran,	2,654	2,063,860	1,822,048	241,590	207	16	778	211,936
34. Champáran,	3,531	1,440,815	1,240,264	199,237	1,307	7	408	51,578
35. Monghyr,	3,913	1,812,986	1,613,546	182,269	1,142	16,029	463	81,015
36. Bhágalpur,	4,327	1,826,290	1,639,949	169,426	532	16,382	422	67,925
37. Purniah,	4,957	1,714,795	1,022,009	690,149	403	2,234	346	127,693
38. Santál Parganás,	5,488	1,259,287	650,210	79,786	392	528,899	229	12,154
Total,	42,417	19,736,101	16,526,850	2,636,053	8,063	565,135	465	61,184,905
ORISSA.								
39. Cuttack,	3,178	1,494,784	1,430,040	40,013	2,314	22,417	470	£83,416
40. Purí,	2,473	769,674	739,636	11,586	576	17,876	311	45,862
41. Balasor,	2,066	770,232	738,396	18,878	530	12,428	373	40,424
42. Tributary States,	16,184	1,283,309	879,655	3,995	303	399,356	79	...
Total,	23,901	4,317,999	3,787,727	74,472	3,723	452,077	180	£169,702
CHHOTA NAGPUR.								
43. Hazáríbágh,	7,021	771,875	647,991	72,338	1,573	49,973	110	£7,041
44. Lohárdagá,	12,044	1,237,123	741,952	58,211	12,781	424,179	103	9,732
45. Singbhúm,	4,503	415,023	209,632	2,487	852	202,052	92	5,934
46. Mánbhúm,	4,914	995,570	827,936	33,622	592	133,420	203	6,572
47. Tributary States,	15,419	405,980	139,781	2,348	...	263,851	26	...
Total,	43,901	3,825,571	2,567,292	169,006	15,798	1,073,475	87	£29,279
Grand Total,	194,417[3]	64,444,379	40,854,088	20,414,305	91,225	2,426,254	331	£3,780,957

[1] The Census of the Dwárs of Jalpáigurí was taken in 1869-70, at the time of the land settlement, and the details of the population, according to religion, were not ascertained for this part of the District. The details, therefore, do not agree with the total population.

[2] Census taken at the time of settlement. Details not ascertained.

[3] This area is exclusive of 5341 square miles of unsurveyed Sundarbans, and minor tracts; total area of all Bengal, 203,473 square miles.

BENGAL IN 1872, INCLUDING ASSAM.

Provinces.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Average population per sq. mile.	Percentage of entire area.	Percentage of the whole population	Principal Languages.
Bengal, . . .	94,539	36,769,735	389	38·08	55·00	Bengali and Hindustání.
Behar, . . .	42,417	19,736,101	465	17·09	29·52	Hindustání and Hindí.
Orissa (including the Tributary States),	23,901	4,317,999	181	9·63	6·46	Uriyá and aboriginal tongues and patois.
Chhotá Nágpur, .	43,901	3,825,571	87	17·69	5·72	Bengali and aboriginal tongues.
Assam (separated in 1874), . . .	43,473	2,207,453	51	17·51	3·30	Assamese, Bengali, and aboriginal tongues.
Total, . .	248,231	66,856,859	269	100·00	100·00	

Sentence continued from page 12.]
of the great District of Sylhet to the newly-formed administration of Assam. But I have no other materials for showing, in a tabular form, the various elements of the population, District by District. I shall then deal with the population according to the Commissionerships or Administrative Divisions of Bengal, from data obtained from the Census of 1872, but corrected according to subsequent changes. I should repeat that, as stated in the first paragraph of this article, the population of Bengal, according to the Parliamentary Abstract of 1878 (after all transfers up to that year), was 62,815,370; and the area 195,153 square miles, exclusive of certain unsurveyed tracts, or a total of 203,473 square miles including those tracts.

GENERAL SURVEY OF THE POPULATION.—The Government in Bengal is complicated by the fact, that while this vast population is ruled by a single head, it consists of elements so dissimilar as to render it impracticable to place them under any one system of administration. They exhibit every stage of human progress, and every type of human enlightenment and superstition,—from the sceptical educated classes, represented by the Hindu gentleman who distinguishes himself at a London Inn of Court, to the hill chieftain, who a few years ago sacrificed an idiot on the top of a mountain to obtain a favourable decision in a Privy Council Appeal. A large section of the people belongs to the august Aryan race, from which we ourselves descend. Its classical language, Sanskrit, is as near to our own as that of the Welsh or Scottish Highlanders. We address the Deity and his earthly representatives, our father and mother, by words derived from roots common to the Christian and the Hindu. Nor does the religious instinct assume a wider variety of manifestations, or exhibit a more striking series of metamorphoses, among the European than among the Indian branches of the race. Theodore Parker and Comte are more read by the ad-

vanced Hindus, known as 'Young Bengal,' than any Sanskrit theologian. On the same bench of a Calcutta college sit youths trained up in the strictest theism, others indoctrinated in the mysteries of the Hindu trinity and pantheon, with representatives of every link in the chain of superstition—from the harmless offering of flowers before the family god, to the cruel rites of Kálí, to whom a human victim was offered in Húglí District, twenty-five miles from Calcutta, as lately as the famine of 1866. Indeed, the very word Hindu is one of absolutely indeterminate meaning. The Census officers employ it as a convenient generic to include 40 millions of the population of Bengal, comprising elements of transparently distinct ethnical origin, and separated from each other by their language, customs, and religious rites. But Hinduism, understood even in this wide sense, represents only one of many creeds and races found within Bengal. The other great historical cultus, which, during the last twelve centuries, did for the Semitic peoples what Christianity accomplished among the European Aryans, has won to itself one-third of the whole population of Bengal. The Muhammadans amount to about 20 millions; and the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal is, so far as numbers go, as great a Musalmán power as the Sultán of Turkey himself. Amid the stupendous catastrophes of the seasons, the river inundations, famines, tidal waves, and cyclones of the Lower Provinces of Bengal, the religious instinct works with a vitality unknown in European countries, where the forces of Nature have long yielded to the control of man. Until the British Government stepped in with its police, and canals, and railroads, between the people and what they were accustomed to consider as the dealings of Providence, scarcely a year passed without some terrible manifestation of the power and the wrath of God. Marhattá invasions from Central India, piratical devastations on the seaboard, banditti who marched about the interior in bodies of 50,000 men, floods which drowned the harvests of whole Districts, and droughts in which a third of the population starved to death, kept alive a sense of human powerlessness in the presence of an Omnipotent fate with an intensity which the homilies of a stipendiary clergy sometimes fail to awaken. Under the Muhammadans, a pestilence turned the early capital into a wilderness, never again to be re-peopled. Under our own rule, it is estimated that 10 millions perished within the Lower Provinces alone during the famine of 1769-70; and the first Surveyor-General of Bengal entered on his maps a tract of many hundreds of square miles as bare of villages, and 'depopulated by the Maghs.'

Popular Religions.—The people of Bengal, thus constantly reminded by calamity of a mysterious Supreme Power, have always exhibited deep earnestness in their own modes of propitiating it, and a singular susceptibility to new forms of faith. Great tidal waves of religion have

again and again swept over the Provinces within even the brief period of the Christian era. Islám was one of several reformed creeds offered to them; and many circumstances combined to render its influence more widely spread and more permanent than that of its rivals. It was the creed of the governing power; its missionaries were men of zeal, who spoke to the popular heart; it brought the good news of the unity of God and the equality of man to a priest-ridden and a caste-ridden people. Above all, the initiatory rite made relapse impossible, and rendered the convert and his posterity true believers for ever. Forcible conversions are occasionally recorded, with several well-known instances of Hindus becoming apostates from their ancient faith to purchase pardon for crimes. Such cases, however, were few in number, and belonged to the higher ranks. It would also appear that a Mughal adventurer now and then circumcised off-hand the villages allotted to him in fief. But it was not to such measures that Islám owed its permanent success in Bengal. It appealed to the people, and it derived the great mass of its converts from among the poor. It brought in a truer conception of God, a nobler ideal of the life of man; and offered to the teeming low-castes of Bengal, who had sat for ages despised and abject on the outermost pale of the Hindu community, free entrance into a new social organization. So far as local traditions, and the other fragmentary evidence which survives, enable a modern inquirer to judge, the creed of Muhammad was here spread neither by violence nor by any ignoble means. It succeeded because it deserved to succeed. Nevertheless, it conspicuously failed to alter the permanent religious conceptions of the people. The initiatory rite separated the Musalmáns from the rest of the Bengali population, and elevated the heterogeneous low-caste converts into a respectable community of their own. But the proselytes brought their old superstitions with them into their new faith. Their ancient rites and modes of religious thought reasserted themselves with an intensity that could not be suppressed, until the fierce white light of Semitic monotheism almost flickered out amid the fuliginous exhalations of Hinduism. A local writer, speaking from personal acquaintance with the Musalmán peasantry in the northern Districts of Lower Bengal, states that not one in ten can recite the brief and simple *kalmá* or creed, whose constant repetition is a matter of unconscious habit with all good Muhammadans. He describes them as 'a sect which observes none of the ceremonies of its faith, which is ignorant of the simplest formulas of its creed, which worships at the shrines of a rival religion, and tenaciously adheres to practices which were denounced as the foulest abominations by its founder.' Fifty years ago, these sentences would have truly described the Muhammadan peasantry, not only in the northern Districts, but throughout all Lower Bengal. In

the cities, or amid the serene palace life of the Musalmán nobility and their religious foundations, a few Maulvís of piety and learning calmly carried on the routine of their faith. But the masses of the rural Musalmáns had relapsed into something little better than a mongrel breed of circumcised low-caste Hindus. Since then, another of those religious awakenings so characteristic of India has passed over the Muhammadans of Bengal. Itinerant preachers, generally from the north, have wandered from District to District, calling on the people to return to the true faith, and denouncing God's wrath on the indifferent and unrepentant. A great body of the Bengali Musalmáns have purged themselves of the taint of Hinduism, and shaken off the yoke of ancient rural rites. The revival has had a threefold effect—religious, social, and political. It has stimulated the religious instinct among an impressionable people, and produced an earnest desire to cleanse the worship of God and His Prophet from idolatry. This stern rejection of ancient superstitions has widened the gulf between the Muhammadans and the Hindus. Fifty years ago the Bengali Musalmáns were simply a recognised caste, less widely separated from the lower orders of the Hindus than the latter were from the Kulin Bráhmans. There were certain essential points of difference, of a doctrinal sort, between the Hindu and Muhammadan villager; but they had a great many rural customs and even religious rites in common. The Muhammadan husbandman theoretically recognised the one Semitic God; but in a country subject to floods, famines, the devastations of banditti, and the ravages of wild beasts, he would have deemed it a simple policy to neglect the Hindu festivals in honour of Krishná and Durgá. Now, however, the peasantry no longer look to their gods, but to the officer in charge of the District, for protection; and when he fails them, instead of offering expiatory sacrifices to Kálí, they petition Government, or write violent letters to the vernacular press. The reformed Muhammadan husbandmen, therefore, can now stand aloof from the rites of the Hindus. They have ceased to be merely a separate caste in the rural organization, and have become a distinct community, keeping as much apart from their nominal co-religionists of the old unreformed faith as from the idolatrous Hindus. This social isolation from the surrounding Hindus is the second effect of the Musalmán revival in Bengal. Its third result is political, and concerns ourselves. A Muhammadan like a Christian revival strongly reasserts the duty of self-abnegation, and places a multitude of devoted instruments at the disposal of any man who can convince them that his schemes are identical with the will of God. But while a return to the primitive teachings of Christ means a return to a religion of humanity and love, a return to Muhammadan first principles means a return to a religion of intolerance and aggression. The very essence of Musalmán Puritanism is abhorrence of the

Infidel. The whole conception of Islám is that of a church either actively militant or conclusively triumphant—forcibly converting the world, or ruling the stiff-necked unbeliever with a rod of iron. The actual state of India, where it is the Musalmáns who are in subjection, and the unbeliever who governs them, is manifestly not in accord with the primitive ideal; and many devout Muhammadans of the reformed faith have of late years endeavoured, by plots and frontier attacks, to remove this anomaly. The majority are not actively hostile, but they look askance at our institutions, and hesitate to coalesce with the system which the British Government has imposed on Bengal.

Theistic Movements.—As a result of the spread of education, certain religious movements have been going on since 1830 among the Hindus. A sect named the 'Adi-Brahmo' adopts a theism based on the Veda, and a simple morality, without the superstructure of Bráhmanical Hinduism. It includes among its members, who, however, are not very numerous, many persons of high character and social position. Another sect, the Brahmos, often styled the Progressive Brahmos, profess a purer theism and a high standard of morality. They reject the claims of the Veda to divine inspiration, and have to some extent thrown off the more objectionable of the restrictions of caste. Babu Keshab Chandra Sen is their best-known leader. The number of educated natives who hold Brahmo opinions is believed to be considerable. Another result of education has been the formation of societies and associations in all parts of the country; they are about 60 in number, and have about 2000 members in all. Their objects pertain chiefly to educational and social matters. On the other hand, great religious movements frequently take place among the low-castes. Holy men or teachers spring up, sometimes close to Calcutta, sometimes in secluded Districts, and make thousands or hundreds of thousands of followers. The Vishnuvite sect is now the prevailing one in Bengal. Throughout the low-caste Districts of the east, and especially in Assam, it absorbs almost the whole of the inferior classes of the Hindus.

Aboriginal Creeds.—Besides the 40 millions of Hindus, and the 20 millions of Musalmáns, a great residue remains. It consists, with the exception of two small bodies of Christians and Buddhists, of semi-aboriginal and distinctly non-Aryan races. The latter number 3 millions in Bengal, or almost exactly the population of Scotland. These peoples dwell, for the most part, among the lofty ranges and primeval forests which wall in Bengal on the north, east, and south-west, or upon the spurs and hilly outworks which these mountain systems have thrown forward upon the lowlands. Some of them represent the simplest types of social organization known to modern research. Their rudimentary communities are separated by religion, custom, and language from each other and from the dwellers

on the plains. Many of them, till lately, looked upon war as the normal condition of human society, and on peace as an unwelcome temporary break in their existence. For ages they have regarded the lowland Hindus as their natural enemies, and in turn have been dealt with as beasts of chase by the more civilised inhabitants of the valleys. Within the present generation, human sacrifice continued an obligatory rite among some of them—a rite so deeply graven upon their village institutions, and so essential to the annually-recurring festivals of their religious year, as to seriously occupy the Indian Legislature, and to require a special agency to suppress it. Their jealousy of anything like foreign rule renders it the wisest policy to leave them as much as possible under their own hamlet communities and petty chiefs. Nevertheless, they form the most hopeful material yet discovered in Bengal for the humanizing influences of Christianity, and of that higher level of morality and civilisation which Christian missions represent.

Administrative Divisions. — The whole territory subject to the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal (now *exclusive* of Assam) is portioned off into nine large tracts, officially called Divisions, each of which is superintended by a Commissioner. Five Districts of Bengal Proper, west of the Bhágirathí, or Húglí, constitute the Bardwán Division, and this tract is also known as Western Bengal; the Presidency and the Rájsháhí with Kuch Behar Divisions are comprised in Central Bengal; Eastern Bengal consists of the Dacca and Chittagong Divisions; the Province of Behar contains the Patná and Bhágalpur Divisions; Orissa and Chutiá Nágpur constitute each a separate Division. These Divisions *now* comprise 47 Districts, as indicated on p. 13 (Tirhut being divided into two, and Sylhet transferred to Assam).

For the purposes of revenue administration, the country was divided by the Mughal Government into *parganás*, each comprising a certain number of villages with their lands. This arrangement formed the basis of our own revenue system; but from its want of compactness, as well as for other reasons, it has been found inconvenient, and in Bengal has fallen into such decay that in some Districts the *parganá* boundaries can hardly be ascertained. Practically the *parganá* divisions have died out, except for purposes of land revenue payments, in favour of the simpler and more compact arrangements adopted for purposes of police. The *thána*, or police circle, is now the unit of local administration.

Early Estimates of Population.—The Census, taken during the cold weather of 1871-72, was the first that had ever been attempted throughout Bengal. Previous to it, only partial enumerations of particular areas had from time to time been made, and these were either estimates based upon the number of houses in the District incorrectly computed, or conclusions drawn from experience and general observation, and entitled to little reliance. The population shown

by the Census far exceeded the total of any such previous estimates. With few exceptions, every District in the Province is more thickly populated than even the most liberal official calculation had allowed for. In the first instance, about 1765, the population had been assumed at 10 millions; Sir William Jones in 1787 thought it amounted to 24 millions; Mr. Colebrook in 1802 estimated it at 30 millions. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton had, however, about this period made an estimate of the population of several Districts, which he put very much higher than other authorities. In the years just before the Census, the population had been generally accepted at about 40 millions for the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, which then included Assam. The Census of 1872 suddenly disclosed a population of 66,856,839 (including Assam).

Density.—The density of the population is subject to the widest variation, the average number of persons to the square mile being 465 throughout Behar, 438 (*now*) in Bengal Proper, 180 in Orissa, and 87 in Chutiá Nágpur. The average density of population over the whole inhabited area in 1872 was 397 to the square mile. In the United Kingdom it was 260; in Germany, 189; and in France, 180. The metropolitan Districts of Húglí and the Twenty-four Parganás; the important trading Districts of Dacca, Farídpur, and Pabná, rich in their river communications and in the prosperity of their inhabitants; the fertile country of Rangpur; and the Behar Districts of Patná, Darbhangah, Muzaffarpur, and Sáran,—are the most populous parts of Bengal. In all these Districts, there is an average population of over 600 persons to the square mile. But though Behar and the Gangetic Delta are densely populated, there remain large tracts of territory where the people are very sparsely scattered. Thus, while the average density in Húglí is 1045 to the square mile, in the Chittagong Hill Tracts and in Hill Tipperah it is 10 and 9 respectively. The average number of villages or communes per square mile throughout Bengal is 1·16; number of persons per village, 338; persons per house, 5·77.

Nationalities.—The Bengalis occupy Bengal Proper, with parts of Purniah, Santál Parganás, and Mánbhúm Districts. They number about 38 millions. The people of Behar are Hindustánís, speaking the same language as, and in their manners, etc. identical with, the 40 or 50 millions of Hindustánís who inhabit the North-Western Provinces, Oudh, part of the Central Provinces, Rájputána, etc. A good many are resident in the Santál Parganás. Throughout the largest Districts of Chutiá Nágpur they are numerous, and have introduced and established their language, manners, and civilisation in those parts, the aborigines having as usual succumbed to external influences. Altogether the Hindustání or Hindi-speaking people within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal number about 20 millions.

The Uriyá speakers of Orissa, including hillmen and dwellers on the plains, are about 4 millions.

The large number of Muhammadans (19,553,831) found in Lower Bengal is one of the most interesting of the facts brought out by the Census of 1872. The vast majority, viz. 16½ millions, are found in Bengal Proper; in Behar, they hardly number more than 2½ millions, out of a total population of nearly 20 millions; in Chutiá Nágpur and Orissa, they are very sparse; in the Bográ District, Muhammadans form 80 per cent. of the population; in Rájsháhí, 77 per cent.; and in Pabná, 69 per cent. In the Districts of Chittagong and Noákhálí, the Musalmáns constitute three-fourths of the population. It is not in the great Mughal capitals that we find the Muhammadans most numerous. In Dacca, for long their seat of government, the Muhammadans are very slightly in excess of Hindus; in Maldah District, which contained the earlier capital, Gaur, the Muhammadans form 46 per cent. of the population; in Murshidabad, they are scarcely 45 per cent.; in Patná, they form only 12 per cent., and even in Patná city itself they are only 24 per cent. On the other hand, not to refer to the Districts already mentioned, in Bákarganj, Tipperah, Rangpur, and Maimansinh they constitute two-thirds of the population; and in Dinájpur, Nadiyá, Jessor, and Farídpur, more than half. Wherever the Muhammadans form the bulk of the population in Bengal, it will be found that they are the cultivating classes of the people, while the upper and mercantile classes are Hindus, and some very low classes are semi-Hindus, probably for the most part aboriginal in blood. All the sailors of the eastern Districts are Muhammadans. The number of Muhammadans in Behar is comparatively small, and they belong for the most part to the upper orders, living in towns such as Patná, Barh, and Behar. The great mass of the people and cultivating classes in that Province are still Hindus. The fabric of Hinduism was too firm in the north to be shaken by the Musalmán invasion, and the new faith produced few converts. Though aboriginal tribes are still to be found in Behar, they probably did not at that time form so large a percentage of the population as in the lower delta of Bengal. Swept on before the Aryan tide of immigration, large numbers of them had been exterminated, or were driven down the Gangetic valley, or into the wilds of Chutiá Nágpur. The Aryan element in Behar was thus left to itself, and seems to have consolidated its position sufficiently to be able to resist the shock of a proselytizing faith. But in Bengal Proper it was not so; there, the Muhammadans found Hinduism resting on weak and uncertain foundations, with but a feeble hold on the minds and affections of the great bulk of the inhabitants. The Aryan element in Lower Bengal, so far from displacing the children of the soil, only held its own by frequent importations of fresh Bráhman blood from

Upper India. Thus it happened that when the Musalmán conquerors of Hindustán invaded the lower delta with the sword and the Korán, they were not altogether unwelcome. They proclaimed equality, and broke down the trammels of caste. In Lower Bengal, Hinduism succumbed, and great masses of the people embraced the faith of Muhammad.

The number of Europeans and non-Asiatics in Bengal is 17,135. Of this total, 13,757 are found in Calcutta and its neighbourhood, 813 in Húglí with Howrah, 420 in Dárjíling District, 333 in Bardwán, and scarcely more than 200 in any other District. In the Province of Behar, the Europeans number 3287; 1620 in the Patná District, and 510 in Monghyr. The proportion of the European community is (if we exclude Calcutta) larger in Behar than in Bengal Proper. This is due to the greater development of European industry, and to the military cantonments. The Eurasian population numbers 20,279, of whom 10,362, or more than half, are in Calcutta and the Twenty-four Parganás; 5638 in Dacca; 896 in Chittagong; and 557 in Húglí. In Dacca and Chittagong there are colonies of Firinghis, mixed descendants of Portuguese, who made these places their headquarters in Eastern Bengal. The population of Asiatics, other than natives of India, is 33,248, composed mostly of Nepálís in Dárjíling and on the northern frontier of Behar; the Armenian community comprises 910 souls, chiefly in Calcutta and Dacca; the Chinese number 574, nearly all shoemakers and carpenters in Calcutta; there are 574 Jews, mainly in the metropolis; of Parsís there are 1223; and of Persians, 227.

Christians, native and European together, number 90,000 souls. Nearly one-half of these are Europeans or East Indians. The native converts are chiefly found in the Presidency, Dacca, and Chutiá Nágpur Divisions. In Chutiá Nágpur there are 16,000 converts, who belong mainly to the aboriginal tribes.

Aboriginal Tribes.—The Census of 1872 returned 3,000,000 persons as belonging to aboriginal tribes, who had not adopted any form of Hinduism. It is impossible, however, to draw any very distinct line between the aborigines and Hindu races, as they merge insensibly into one another. There are large numbers of low-caste and out-cast people who are aboriginal in blood, and can scarcely be said to be Hindu in any real sense, though they are entered as such in the Census returns. The low-castes have deities and religious observances of their own, and are only entered as Hindus because they do not come under any other specific race-name.

In Bengal Proper the aboriginal population is 387,157, of whom 139,761 are Santáls. The semi-Hinduized aborigines number 5,110,989. Chandáls (1,620,545) are the great Pariah caste, to which was doubtless consigned the great bulk of the aboriginal tribes which embraced Hinduism in Bengal; they are most numerous in the

Eastern Districts. The Rájbansís (739,886) are much the same as the Palis of Dinájpur and Maldah and the Kochs of Rangpur, and these castes together number considerably over a million; they are mostly cultivators, and are evidently an Indo-Chinese race. The Bagdís (680,278) and Baorís (199,968) are the fishermen and the palanquin-bearers of Western Bengal. The Chamárs and Muchís (393,490) prepare hides and work in leather. Among Hindus, the Bráhmans, the Kshattriyas or Rájputs, the Baidyás, and the Káyasths are the superior castes. There are 1,100,105 Bráhmans, 1,160,478 Káyasths, 117,508 Rájputs, and 68,353 Baidyás in Bengal Proper. The Ganda-baniás or Baniás (127,178) are the most populous of the trading castes; Goálás (625,163) are the great pastoral caste. The great cultivating Hindu castes are the Kaibarttas, who number over 2 millions, and the Sadgops (630,000). Among the boating and fishing castes are the Jaliyás (361,917), Tuárs (331,661), and Pods (293,121). Of the artisan classes, the oilmen are the most important, numbering altogether (Telís, Tilís, and Kálus) 572,659; Sunrís, or wine-sellers, number 430,582; Kumárs, or potters, 281,758; and Kamárs, or blacksmiths, 250,285; the total of all the weaving castes is 963,176. 428,000 Vaishnavs are enumerated among Hindus who no longer recognise caste.

In Behar, the Santáls (485,948) are the most numerous of the aboriginal tribes; the semi-Hinduized aborigines amount to nearly 3 millions. The Dosádhs (893,989) are the ordinary labouring class. Chamárs, or Muchís, number 711,721; Musáhars, 426,908; Bhuiyás, 214,742; Pasís, 122,520. Among Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 853,662; Rájputs, 1,013,676; Bábhans, 1,001,369; and Káyasths, 208,935. The Ahírs, or Goálás, form everywhere the largest portion of the Hindu population. Of the agricultural classes, the Koeris (985,538) rank first, and then the Kurmís (650,839).

In Orissa, 367,308 persons have been classed as belonging to aboriginal tribes; 572,595 as semi-Hinduized aborigines; 3,231,799 as Hindus; 71,315 as of Hindu extraction, but not recognising caste; and 74,466 as Muhammadans. The aboriginal tribes are principally found in the wild and mountainous tract which constitutes the Tributary States. Bráhmans number 359,799; the Karan Káyasths, 113,434; the Gaurs (225,533) form the great pastoral caste, corresponding to the Goálás of Behar and Bengal. The Khandáits (447,688) are an important class in Orissa. Originally they composed the militia, and held land on military tenures; they then became cultivators, and are now hardly to be distinguished from the Chásás (808,515), or agricultural caste. The Santáls number 77,727 in Orissa.

The population of Chutiá Nágpur is composed of over 2 millions of aboriginal tribes and about 1¾ million of Hindus. Of the aborigines, about 1¼ million are very primitive, and about three-quarters of a

million have been subjected to Hindu influences. The Kols number 292,039; the Santáls, 220,096; the Mundas, 190,095; the Dhangars, or Uráons, 208,343. One-third of the Hindus are in the District of Mánbhúm. The most important agricultural caste is that of the Kurmís, numbering nearly a quarter of a million.

Classification according to Sex and Age.—The population of Bengal (excluding Assam and Hill Tipperah, where the people were enumerated without distinction of sex) consisted in 1872 of 31,324,310 males and 31,347,192 females. The total returned as under 12 years of age is 21,531,598, against 41,139,914 returned as being over that age. Distinguishing these classes as children and adults respectively, we find that of the former class 11,737,480 are males and 9,794,109 females; among adults, 19,586,831 are males and 21,553,083 are females. The number of boys everywhere largely exceeds the girls, while the number of adult men always falls short of that of adult women. The explanation of this is that girls arrive at maturity sooner than boys, and many of them are returned as women while males of the same age continue to be classed as boys. The proportion of children in Bengal is very large, and relatively it is found to be largest among the aboriginal tribes.

The extraordinary absence of large towns is one of the most remarkable statistical features of Bengal. The population beyond Calcutta and its suburbs is almost wholly rural. Patná has 159,000 people, and there are a few second-rate towns in Behar. In Bengal Proper the largest town is Dacca, 69,000. The city of Murshidábád, the seat of the Nawáb Názim and his followers, has only 46,000 souls; and there is not another town above 31,000, and scarcely a dozen averaging 20,000 each. Rangpur, the capital of the great District of Rangpur, contains 6100 souls, and Jessor, 8152; each of these Districts having a population of over 2 millions. There are 145,511 villages with a population of less than 500 inhabitants; only 34 towns with a population above 20,000.

The villages in Bengal are isolated clusters of homesteads, whose inhabitants live very much among themselves, and cling tenaciously to their own homes. The old communal institutions by which the village was governed are fading away under the influence of British rule and the *zamíndárí* system. The ancient indigenous village system of India still exists in the hilly country attached to Bengal, but in the plains it has almost disappeared. The traces that remain are scanty; in some places village *panchâyats*, or conferences, exist, but they are being supplanted by municipal institutions, law courts, and the influence of the landlord. The village Headman has still, however, a recognised position in the rural community, although denuded of his authoritative powers. His functions are those of an arbitrator and general adviser;

and the office is to a remarkable extent in the Bengal Delta hereditary in low-caste families. Of 6000 village headmen in the neighbourhood of Calcutta, only 15 belonged to high castes, and 1300 to intermediate castes, and 3600 to low castes.

Condition of the People.—The following estimates have been attempted, on rather slender evidence, of the employments of the population of Bengal:—Labour, number of persons engaged, 11,000,000; manufactures, 7,000,000; trade and commerce, 4,000,000; cultivation and ownership of land, 36,000,000; service and professions, public and private, 5,000,000—total, 63,000,000.

The people of the eastern Districts of the Province are as a rule much better off than those in the western Districts. In the first place, the rate of wages is higher in the east, while food is generally cheaper; secondly, the pressure of the population on the soil is lighter, and rents are consequently lighter in comparison to the productiveness of the soil and the remunerative character of such staples as jute, etc. In Districts to the west, however, where labour is cheap and land is dear, the people emigrate to other parts of the country for temporary service and labour. Thus the people of Behar, Orissa, and Chutiá Nágpur especially, every year send colonies into Bengal, besides furnishing labourers for the tea Districts. The emigration from Calcutta to countries beyond sea only averages 12,000 per annum.

The prices of common food differ much at the central marts and in the isolated tracts of the interior, being tolerably uniform in the former, but sometimes extraordinarily cheap in the latter. The increasing facilities for transport are tending to correct this; but prices are everywhere much higher than they used to be in former times. At present, in Bengal and Behar hamlets a rupee will ordinarily purchase 20 to 25 *sers* of common rice, and in Orissa from 25 to 30 *sers*. During the last generation it would have purchased 40 *sers*, and in the generation before that, 60 *sers* and upwards. In Calcutta itself, prices of food are still dearer; there, a rupee will seldom purchase more than 16 *sers* of common rice. In Behar, however, maize and other cereals, besides rice, are consumed; and of these a rupee will purchase as much as 35 *sers*. The wages of labour may be generally stated at 1 to 2 annas (1½d. to 3d.) a day in Behar, 2 annas (3d.) in Orissa, 3 annas (4½d.) in Northern Bengal, 4 annas (6d.) in Central Bengal, 5 annas (7½d.) in Eastern Bengal, and 4 to 6 annas (6d. to 9d.) in Calcutta. During the last generation, the rates ranged from 1 anna to 3 annas at the highest, the lowest being the generally prevalent rate. On the whole, the wages of labour have risen in proportion to the prices of common food.

The indebtedness of the cultivators as a class is not so serious as it once was, but it still largely exists. It is worst in Behar, less in Central

and Western Bengal and in Orissa, and least in Eastern and Northern Bengal, where it has in places altogether disappeared. The ordinary rates of interest are as high as 2 pice in the rupee per month for money lent, equal to 37½ per cent. per annum; and 50 per cent. is usually paid as interest on rice advances. The security is the standing crop. The creditors are generally the village bankers; but often, also, the *zamíndárs*, or landholders. The loans are contracted partly for purchase of cattle and implements of husbandry, to some extent for law expenses, and largely for marriage ceremonies.

Agriculture.—The chief products of the Province have been already enumerated. The great staple crop is rice, of which there are three harvests in the year,—the *boro*, or spring rice; *áus*, or autumn rice; and *áman*, or winter rice. Of these, the last or winter rice is by far the most extensively cultivated, and forms the great harvest of the year. The *áman* crop is grown on low land. In May or June, after the first fall of rain, a nursery ground is ploughed three times, and the seed scattered broadcast. When the seedlings make their appearance, another field is prepared for transplanting. By this time the rainy season has thoroughly set in, and the field is dammed up so as to retain the water. It is then repeatedly ploughed until the water becomes worked into the soil, and the whole reduced to thick mud. The young rice is next taken from the nursery, and transplanted in rows about 9 inches apart. If, by reason of the backwardness of the rains, the nursery ground cannot be prepared for the seed in April–May–June, the *áman* rice is not transplanted at all. In such a case, the husbandmen in June, July, or August soak the paddy in water for one day to germinate, and plant the germinated seed, not in a nursery plot, but in the larger fields, which they would otherwise have used to transplant the sprouts into. It is very seldom, however, that this procedure is found necessary. *Aman* rice is much more extensively cultivated than *áus*, and in favourable years is the most valuable crop; but being sown in low lands is liable to be destroyed by excessive rainfall. The *áman* is reaped in November–December–January. *Aus* rice is generally sown on high ground. The field is ploughed, when the early rains set in, ten or twelve times over, till the soil is reduced nearly to dust, the seed being sown broadcast in April or May. As soon as the young plants reach 6 inches in height, the land is harrowed for the purpose of thinning the crop and to clear it of weeds. The crop is harvested in August or September. *Boro*, or spring rice, is cultivated on low marshy land, being sown in a nursery in October, transplanted a month later, and harvested in March and April. An indigenous description of rice, called *urí* or *járadhán*, grows in certain marshy tracts. The grain is very small, and is gathered for consumption only by the poorest. No tabulated statistics of cultivation exist; but in 1872-73, the quantity of

rice exported from Bengal to foreign ports amounted to 288,955 tons, of the value of £1,685,170; in 1876–77, the total export of rice by sea exceeded 2 millions sterling. Oil-seeds are very largely grown over the whole of Bengal, particularly in the Behar and Assam Districts; their exports by sea in 1876–77 exceeded 2¾ millions sterling. The principal oil-seeds are *sarishá* (mustard), *til* (sesamum), and *tísí* or *masiná* (linseed). Exports of oil-seeds are principally confined to linseed, of which 107,723 tons were exported in 1872-73.

Jute.—Jute (*pát* or *koshtá*) now forms a very important commercial staple of Bengal. The cultivation of this crop has rapidly increased of late years. Its principal seat of cultivation is Eastern Bengal, where the superior varieties are grown. The crop grows on either high or low lands, is sown in April, and cut in August. In 1872, the area under jute cultivation in Bengal was estimated at 925,899 acres, and the yield at 496,703 tons. Jute exports from Bengal amounted in 1872-73 to 353,097 tons, value £4,127,943. Jute manufactures, in the shape of gunny bags, cloth, rope, etc., were also exported to the value of £187,149.

Indigo.—Indigo cultivation is principally carried on with European capital. Notwithstanding the vicissitudes which it has encountered, it still forms one of the principal industries of the Province. In the Districts of Nadiyá and Jessor, and throughout Central Bengal, in Purniah, and westwards in all Behar north of the Ganges, indigo is largely cultivated; and, from its mode of cultivation, it is in many places the staple which most engrosses the attention of the people. The indigo riots of 1859-60 were, however, followed by a marked decline in the cultivation of the plant throughout Bengal Proper. In some Districts, indeed, the manufacture became extinct, in consequence of the hostility of the cultivators; and, though it has since shown a tendency to recover itself, the area under cultivation is less than it was twenty years ago, while the profits to be derived from the growth of jute, European vegetables, and valuable garden crops—betel, chillies, ginger, turmeric, etc.—render the *rayats* averse to entering into engagements with the indigo planters. The decline of indigo in Bengal Proper has, however, been almost counterbalanced in later years by its extension in Behar and in the North-Western Provinces, and especially by its cultivation by native capitalists. The annual out-turn of the country greatly varies, but is now hardly less than it was thirty years ago; it may be put down at rather more than 100,000 *maunds*, say from 3000 to 4000 tons, worth from 2 to 3 millions sterling.

Two crops of indigo are raised in the year,—one sown in April or May before the setting in of the rains, and cut in August or September; the other sown in October as the waters subside, and cut

n the following July. The crop of 1872 was considerably above the average, the total exports amounting to 5962 tons, of the value of £2,704,080.

Tea.—Tea cultivation is the other great industry in Bengal carried on by European capital. It is produced in Dárjíling and the Tarái. Annual yield from these Districts, 4 to 4½ million lbs. About 500,000 lbs. are manufactured on the slopes of the Chittagong Hills, and between one and two hundred thousand pounds in the tea-growing Districts of Chutiá Nágpur. Total yield of Bengal Districts, 4 to 5 million lbs., worth half a million sterling. The use of machinery is extending. The average yield of tea per acre of mature plantations, is 250 lbs. This amount, though falling short of the sanguine expectations of the first days of tea planting, is amply remunerative; and the prices obtained show that the average quality of the tea is good. The industry is now on a prosperous and sound footing. There are evident signs, also, that the labour question has become more easy of solution. The Dárjíling labourers are mostly Nepálís. Of the 29,557,482 lbs. of tea produced in British India in 1876–77, Assam furnished 23½ million lbs.; Bengal, 4⅓ millions; the North-Western Provinces and Punjab, each over half a million; Madras and Burmah together, under half a million.

Opium.—The cultivation of opium is a State monopoly, no person being allowed to grow the poppy except on account of the Government. The plant is successfully cultivated in the large Gangetic tract, which extends from the borders of Oudh to Agra on the west, and to the District of Bhágalpur on the east. The manufacture is carried on at two separate agencies,—that of Benares in the North-Western Provinces, of which the head station is at Gházípur; and that of Behar, with its head station at Patná. Annual engagements are entered into by the cultivators, under a system of pecuniary advances, to sow a certain quantity of land with poppy; and the whole produce in the form of opium is delivered to Government at a fixed rate. It is a principle to leave it optional with every cultivator to enter into such an engagement or not. The area under poppy cultivation in the Behar agency, situated entirely within Bengal, in 1872, amounted to 330,925 acres; in the Benares agency, to 229,430 acres,—total, 560,355 acres. The number of chests of opium sold at the Government sales in Calcutta in 1872 was 42,675, the amount realized was £6,067,701, and the net revenue, £4,259,376. Annual sales of Bengal opium vary from 4½ to 6¾ millions sterling, gross.

Cinchona.—The cultivation of the cinchona plant in Bengal was introduced as an experiment about 1862, in a valley of the Himálayas in Dárjíling District; and the enterprise has already attained a point which promises success. There were in 1874 about 2000 acres of

Government cinchona plantations in Dárjíling. In 1877, the total number of cinchona plants, cuttings, and seedlings was 3,817,192.

System of Land Tenures and Rent.—The land revenue of Bengal and Behar is fixed under the Permanent Settlement, concluded by Lord Cornwallis in 1793. The Government, by abdicating its position as exclusive possessor of the soil, and contenting itself with a permanent rent-charge on the land, freed itself from the labour and risks attendant upon a detailed local management. The land is held by *zamíndárs*, who pay their rent direct to Government. In default of punctual payment of the revenue fixed upon the estates, these are liable to sale at public auction. The native *zamíndárs* in their turn have disposed of their *zamíndárís* to under-tenants. The practice of granting under-tenures—permanent and temporary—has steadily increased, until at the present day only a small proportion of the whole permanently settled area remains in the direct possession of the *zamíndárs*. This process of sub-infeudation has not terminated with the *patnidárs* (permanent tenure-holders) and *ijárádárs* (lease-holders). Lower gradations of sub-tenures under them, called *dar-patnís* and *dar-ijárás*, and even lower subordinate tenures, have been created in great numbers. These tenures and under-tenures often comprise defined tracts of land; but a common practice has been to sub-let certain aliquot shares of the whole superior tenure, the consequence of which is that the tenants in any particular village of an estate often pay their rents to many different landlords,—a fraction, calculated at the rate of so many annas or pice in the rupee, to each. All the under-tenures in Bengal have not, however, been created since the Permanent Settlement. Dependent *talúks*, *gaulís*, *háolás* (*hawálás*), and other similar fixed and transferable under-tenures existed before the Settlement, and their permanent character was recognised at the time. In addition to these numerous tenures, the country is dotted with small plots of land held revenue free, the large majority of them having been granted by former Governments, or *zamíndárs* under those Governments, as religious endowments, —grants which have since been recognised and confirmed by the English Government.

The rates of rent paid by the cultivating tenant depend upon a variety of circumstances. There are rentals at the rate of 9d. an acre; there are rack-rents at the rate of 12s. an acre. There are *rayats* with a permanent interest in the soil, whose rent was fixed fifty years ago or even before the Permanent Settlement, and is therefore nominal and unalterable; there are *rayats* with a right of occupancy, whose rents are liable to enhancement only under certain conditions, and are therefore variable; there are tenants-at-will, whose rents are always at a rack-rate; there are tenants who cultivate their landlords' lands at a trifling rent, but whose actual profits are divided with the landlord;

here are tenants who have paid a quittance in money for their rents altogether; there are *rayats* who pay at a lower rate than others, in consideration of personal service, or from their being connected by family or marriage with their *zamíndár*. In the indigo districts, a general concurrence has been established between the planters and their tenants, that indigo plant shall count in favour of the latter as an equivalent for rent. The *rayat* who sows indigo, compromises his dislike to that cultivation by paying a smaller rent for his land; the *rayat* who does not sow has to pay the full rate. It is notorious also that the *zamíndár's rayats* pay, as a rule, a lower rate than the *rayats* of an under-tenant. The rent law of the country is codified; chiefly in Act x. of 1859, and Act viii. (Bengal Council) of 1869.

Wards' Estates.—The management by the State of the landed properties of minors who are wards of Government, or adults incapacitated for the management of their own affairs, has been placed on a sound legal basis by Act iv. (B.C.) of 1870. On an average, this management comprises about 125 estates, with an aggregate area of nearly 2 millions of acres, or 3300 square miles, and a rental of nearly three-quarters of a million sterling per annum. The care of Government extends also to the minors themselves, for whom institutes are provided at Calcutta and Benares, where they receive a good education suitable to their station.

Surveys.—The professional survey of Bengal has been almost entirely completed. It proves very valuable for the many administrative changes and improvements which are being carried out in the interior of the Districts. But the survey embraces only the exterior boundary of the lands of each village, and affords no details of cultivation or waste; consequently there is lost to us a set of facts which would be most useful as regards the incidence of the land tax, the lightness or pressure of rents, the average of cultivation to each husbandman or each plough, the average size of holdings, and the like. The enormous expense will probably prevent a cadastral survey being attempted throughout Bengal. But a re-survey of the alluvial tracts in the basins of the great rivers is periodically accomplished, in order to make allowance for the effects of the changes constantly going on in the banks of rivers and adjacent lands.

Settlements.—In Bengal Proper and Behar the general Settlement is permanent, but a fraction of the revenue is derived from lands under temporary Settlement. These lands consist chiefly of alluvial accretions and Government estates. Orissa, with the exception of a few large estates, is under a temporary Settlement. In 1837, a thirty years' Settlement was concluded, which, expiring in 1867, was renewed without alteration for another period of thirty years, and is therefore now in force.

Manufactures.—All over Bengal there are the usual handicrafts, to

supply local demand. Weaving and the manufacture of cotton thread occupy large numbers in every District, and, although the extensive imports of cloth and piece-goods from England are driving the finer native fabrics out of the market, the decline has been more than compensated for by the increase of general trade. If the demand for the exquisite muslins of Dacca has been destroyed, native industry is still able to find profitable employment in weaving cloth of a stronger texture from English spun and imported yarns. The growth of the jute trade has given an impetus to the manufacture of gunny bags over all the Eastern and Central Districts. The spinning and weaving of the fibre into cotton bales and grain and sugar bags, and its preparation in the raw state for exportation, afford occupation to thousands; and in Calcutta and its neighbourhood many mills are established, in working which the natives have displayed great aptitude. Carpenters, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, potters, and oil-sellers are settled in almost every village. The manufacture of beads, which are universally worn in necklaces by the lower orders of Hindus, is a very common occupation, and one in which the women take a large share. The weaving of wicker and basket work is the special occupation of the Chamár or Muchí class, a low caste. The native shoes are always made by the Muchís. The *solá* weed grows with rice, and is manufactured by the gardener caste into the *solá* hats or *topís* worn by Europeans, and into artificial flowers and ornaments for native ceremonies. Among the important manufactures of Bengal calling for special notice are indigo, tea, silk, sugar, and saltpetre. The two first have already been mentioned.

Silk.—The production of silk has also long been an important industry. In the days of the East India Company, numerous large filatures, managed by the Company, did a very valuable trade. The ruins of some of these may still be met with, and on the sites of others are seen new filatures belonging to the firms which have succeeded to the trade. The industry, once so flourishing, has, however, for some time been in a declining state. The extensive importation of silk from Japan and China into Europe since the opening of the Suez Canal, and the abundant yield of recent seasons in Italy, have contributed mainly to this falling off. But the quality of Bengal silk is also reported to be indifferent. The annual value of the silk produce of Bengal is from half a million to 1⅓ million sterling; average of ten years, 1867 to 1877, about 1 million.

Sugar.—The cultivation of the date-tree and the manufacture of date sugar are extensively carried on in Jessor, and in parts of Nadiyá, the Twenty-four Parganás, and Farídpur. It is a popular and profitable business for the cultivators. The value of the sugar exported from Jessor District alone is hardly less than half a million sterling; but the average yearly exports by sea from Bengal do not exceed £200,000.

Saltpetre.—Saltpetre is refined in the northern districts of the Patná Division in Behar. Like all branches of industry in India, its manufacture is based on a system of advances. The large houses of business contract generally with middlemen, who again give advances to the village *nuniyas*, a poor and hardy race of labourers, who rent a small site of saliferous earth, collect the earth into large shallow pans, puddle it and drain off the water, with the saline matter in it, into earthen vessels, and then boil and strain it. The crude saltpetre thus manufactured is sold to the refiners, by whom is prepared the saltpetre of commerce. The value of the annual out-turn is about £400,000.

Steam-mills.—The most remarkable manufacturing feature of the present time, however, is the great development, in the neighbourhood of Calcutta, of large steam mills for the spinning and weaving of jute and gunny bags, in establishments of a European character under European management. There are from 15 to 20 large jute factories in and around Calcutta; and the tall smoking chimneys recall associations of the manufacturing cities of Europe. It is estimated that the annual consumption of jute, by 4000 looms at work, is not less than 75,000 tons, and that the total production of the mills during the year is from 80 to 88 million bags of gunny. It does not seem probable that cotton-spinning by machinery will attain any considerable proportions in Bengal. There are, however, five cotton factories near Calcutta, employing 133,042 spindles or throstles.

TRADE.—The position of the classes engaged in trade and commerce in Bengal is very prosperous. The boat trade on the rivers is, for magnitude and variety, quite unique in India. Some of these country craft, with their strong gear and equipment and their skilled navigators, face the wind, storms, and waves of the estuaries of the great rivers, and will, under sail, carry a heavy cargo against the current; others, again, can only ply in the sheltered creeks and channels which spread their network over the country. In Eastern Bengal every husbandman keeps his boat, just as in other countries he keeps his cart. The registration, which has been carefully carried on at some river-side stations, now discloses authoritatively the vast extent of the traffic on the navigable highways. At the same time the registration of the internal traffic by railway and steamer has been effected. The returns are for the year 1876-77. The import trade into Calcutta from the interior (exclusive of opium and railway materials) is valued at £26,671,090. Ten millions sterling came by country boats, 2½ millions by river steamers, 10 millions by the East Indian Railway, 3 millions by the Eastern Bengal Railway, 1 million by road. The principal imports are—rice, £3,570,000; tea, £2,900,000; jute, £2,490,000; indigo, £2,390,000; linseed, £1,980,000; mustard seed, £1,020,000; wheat, £1,290,000; and silk, £1,130,000. The

export trade from Calcutta into the interior of the country is valued at £19,535,510. Four and a quarter millions were exported by country boats, £800,000 by river steamers, 11½ millions by the East Indian Railway, 2½ millions by the Eastern Bengal Railway, £380,000 by road. The most important exports are—European cotton piece-goods, 10½ millions; salt, £3,430,000; and European cotton twist, £1,124,000. Besides Calcutta the following marts have each of them a registered trade of more than a million sterling in value:—Patná, £7,251,743; Serájganj, £3,300,363; Goálandá, £3,146,024; Naráinganj, £2,495,830; Kúshtiá, £2,300,717; Dacca, £1,183,220; Revelganj, £1,034,270. The total value of the rice registered is £5,680,200. The largest rice-exporting Districts, arranged in the order of their importance, are—Bákarganj, the Twenty-four Parganás, Bardwán, Midnapur, Balasor, Maimansinh, Dinájpur, Rájsháhí, Tipperah, and Murshidábád. The value of wheat registered is £1,500,000. More than a quarter of this comes from Cawnpore in the North-Western Provinces, the principal Bengal exporting Districts being—Bhágalpur, Patná, Monghyr, Sáran, Nadiyá, Murshidábád, and Maldah. The value of the jute exported is 4 millions, the principal exporting Districts being—Maimansinh, Dacca, Rangpur, Patná, Tipperah, Rájsháhí, and Farídpur. The value of oil-seeds exported from the producing Districts is 5 millions. Linseed is principally exported from Behar; mustard seed from Eastern Bengal, especially the Districts of Goálpára, within the Assam borders, and Maimansinh.

About £6,000,000 of European cotton piece-goods are consumed within the territories under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. The average consumption is at the rate of very nearly two shillings per head. The consumption is largest in Eastern Bengal, where the prosperity of the people is greatest. This part of the country stands first in the export of rice, jute, and oil-seeds, and also imports the largest quantity of commodities from Europe. In Western Bengal the consumption is less; it is a country of weavers, and the supply of native-made cloth is great. In Orissa, native weavers still retain their old position, and the supply of European piece-goods is comparatively small. The statistics show that the consumption of salt among the population is at the rate of 9½ lbs. per head. Again, the proportion of consumption is highest in Eastern Bengal, 11 lbs. 2 oz.; then come the Western and Central Districts, both above 9½ lbs. per head. There is no insufficiency anywhere, except in Behar, where a quantity of salt extracted in the manufacture of saltpetre passes into local consumption, and so displaces duty-paying salt that would otherwise have been consumed by the people. A large part of the local trade of Bengal is in the hands of foreigners, and the enterprising Kayás or Márwárís in particular have established a connection

in all the important trade centres. Generally speaking, the native traders do not resort to the railway with the same confidence as Europeans. Merchandise, of which the bulk is considerable, such as rice, oil-seeds, jute, and salt, is for the most part financed for by native agents, and still prefers the old river routes. But the tendency to use the railway is rapidly on the increase.

The foreign trade of Bengal is brisk and flourishing. For many years past the exportation of raw produce has been exercising a progressive influence on the condition of the peasantry. It enables them to get increased returns for their labour, whereby they can afford to lodge, feed, and clothe themselves better than formerly, and to fill their dwellings with superior implements and furniture. New wants have arisen in proportion as the means of supplying them are augmented, together with a spirit of self-reliance and a disposition to appreciate and assert the rights which pertain to the tillers of the soil. The value of the trade of the several Bengal ports, including the imports and exports of all merchandise and treasure, both in the trade with foreign countries and in the interportal trade, was as follows for 1875-76:—Calcutta, £50,394,715; Chittagong, £588,969; Orissa Ports, £673,250: total, £51,656,934. Of this grand total, £30,277,888 are exports; £21,289,046 are imports. The total trade of Calcutta alone was £29,557,725 exports; £20,746,990 imports. Of the export trade, 11 millions sterling were sent to Great Britain; 5¼ millions to China; and more than 1 million to the Straits Settlements, the United States, France, and Ceylon. The most important exports are—opium, £5,852,349; jute, £2,805,293; indigo, £2,352,577; oil-seeds, £2,691,278; tea, £2,150,920; hides and skins, £1,603,035; and rice, £1,346,771. In 1875-76, the value of wheat exported was £398,970, but it has since increased to above a million sterling in value. In the import trade, the main items are—cotton piece-goods, £11,390,521; metals, £144,584; and machinery, £520,759. Of the imports, 10½ millions are from the United Kingdom only. The export trade of Chittagong and of the Orissa Ports consists almost entirely of rice, and is carried in coasting vessels. Chittagong imports salt direct from Liverpool; but otherwise these minor ports have no direct trade with Europe or Great Britain.

The Ganges, the Brahmaputra, and on a much smaller scale, the Mahánadí in Orissa, with the Eastern Bengal Railway and the great East Indian Line, form the main arteries of commerce. From these great channels a network of minor streams, and a fairly adequate although not yet complete system of raised roads, radiate to the remotest Districts. The larger transactions of commerce are conducted in the cities, such as Calcutta and Patná, and in great rural marts, which have recently grown up under British rule. The smaller operations of trade are

effected by means of village markets and countless *háts* or open-air weekly *bazárs* in every District.

ADMINISTRATION. — The public Civil Service is divided into two classes,—the Covenanted and Uncovenanted. The former includes the civil servants who have entered into covenant with the Secretary of State for India; they were formerly nominated by the old Court of Directors and passed through Hayleybury, but are now selected by means of the open competitive examination for the India Civil Service, which is held yearly in London. The Uncovenanted Civil Servants include all other civilians under Government employ.

The unit of the executive administration is the Magistrate and Collector, known as 'The District Officer.' The Superintendent of Police is the right hand of the Magistrate. The District jails, although placed in the hands of an officer, usually the Civil Surgeon, selected for the duty, are under the general control of the Magistrate. A similar arrangement has been carried into effect in the department of education. All District Officers are *ex-officio* Registrars. The District Officer is the executive chief and administrator of the tract of country committed to him. At his disposal are the subordinate magisterial police and revenue authorities. The Subdivisional officers, who are Assistant and Deputy Magistrates in charge of divisions of Districts, exercise in their own jurisdiction the delegated authority of the District Officer. The Sub-Deputies and the Subdivisional establishments are the agents of the superior executive officers in all departments. Above the District Magistrates are the Divisional Commissioners. Their duties are to supervise the District Officers, and to act as channels of communication between the local officers and Government, bringing together in a compact form the information they receive.

The management of the whole is firmly concentrated in a single man, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, who is answerable to the Government of India, and through it to Her Majesty's Ministers and Parliament. His responsibility is divided by no executive council, as in Madras or Bombay. All orders issue through his secretaries in his own name; and although his policy is subject to the watchful control of the Government of India, represented by the Viceroy, yet to the Lieutenant-Governor personally belongs the reputation or disgrace of a successful or an inglorious administration. In making laws for his people, he is assisted by a legislative council, composed partly of his principal officers, partly of leading members of the non-official European and Native communities. In his legislative, as in his executive functions, a power of control, amounting if needful to veto, rests with the Government of India—a power which, from the English talent for harmonious proconsular rule, is very seldom exercised.

Bengal is divided into Regulation Districts, whose advanced state has

rendered it expedient to place them under the complete system of Anglo-Indian law; and non-Regulation Districts, in which this has not yet been found practicable. The latter contain territories of three distinct classes. The first of them consists, for the most part, of newly-acquired territory, to which the general regulations have never been extended in their entirety. The second, of tracts inhabited by primitive races specially exempted from the operation of the regulations, and to whom a less formal code of law is better adapted. The third, of semi-independent or tributary States, administered or partly administered by British officers.

Criminal justice is administered by the High Court at Calcutta, the District Courts of Sessions, and the Courts of Magistrates. In respect of civil justice, the High Court of Calcutta exercises original and appellate powers, together with an ecclesiastical, an admiralty, and a bankruptcy jurisdiction. Below the High Court are the District and Additional Judges, the Small Cause Court and Subordinate Judges, and the *Munsiffs*, who are all Civil Judges.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The finances of Bengal are now arranged under four great heads—imperial, provincial, local, and municipal. The total revenue under all these branches for 1876-77 was £18,041,905; thus—imperial (excluding reproductive public works and Nizámat stipend), £15,644,801; provincial, £1,362,451; local, £559,145; municipal (including Calcutta), £475,508. The imperial revenue realized in Bengal during 1875-76 was returned at £15,496,923; the gross amount of the imperial expenditure in Bengal during the same year, £6,696,903. The principal heads of revenue were—land revenue, £3,776,506; opium, £5,921,928; salt, £2,561,553; excise, £608,818; customs, £1,076,364; and stamps, £935,029. The principal heads of expenditure are—opium cultivation, £2,216,011; law and justice, £652,259; land revenue, £281,358; police, £416,476; education, £263,244; and public works, £341,472, or including irrigation, £737,626.

Of the different sources of revenue, the land revenue, excise, and stamps are managed by the District Collector and his establishments; but the opium, customs, and salt revenue are under special departments. The District Collector is controlled by the Revenue Commissioner, who again is subject to the orders of the Board of Revenue. The Board consists of two members, who exercise full powers independently of one another: one devotes his attention to the land revenue, the second has charge of all other sources of revenue. The opium branch of the revenue is under the management of two opium agents—one stationed at Patná and the other at Gházípur; but although the latter station lies in the North-Western Provinces, both officers are subordinate to the Government of Bengal. They are aid

by a local staff of assistants and sub-deputy agents. At the head of the Customs is a special collector. The minor custom-houses at Chittagong and Orissa are under the control of the District Officers.

It is scarcely too much to say, that so long as the British power retains the port of Calcutta and the rich Provinces under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, it would have sufficient revenue to effect the reconquest of India if any accident should happen in the Punjab or north-west. The vast income which the Lower Provinces yield is not altogether derived from their people. China yearly contributes to it about 6 millions in the shape of opium duty, and the inland parts of India contribute over a third of a million to the customs of Bengal. Taking the total thus obtained from other territories and from tributes at 7 millions, the population under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal pays, in imperial, provincial, local, and municipal taxation, 11 millions sterling, or about three shillings and sixpence a head.

Military Force.—The army employed in the territories under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal numbers only 11,554 officers and men, exclusive of a detachment of Madras Native Infantry stationed at Cuttack, in Orissa, and numbering about 600 men—making a gross total of troops in Bengal of about 12,000 men. Of this small force 4662 are massed in Calcutta and its environs, with a view to their proximity to the seaboard, rather than with an eye to the internal requirements of the country; 6892 guard the frontiers, with detachments on the line of railway, which now forms the great highway of Bengal; a detachment of about 600 effective troops of the Madras Native Infantry is stationed in Orissa. Taking 12,000 as the total military force stationed in Bengal, 3000 consist of European troops and English officers, and 9000 of Native officers and men. The Government is a purely civil one, the existence of any armed force being less realized than in the quietest county of England; and of the 62¾ millions of people under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, probably 40 millions go through life without once seeing the gleam of a bayonet or the face of a soldier.

Police, and Criminal and Civil Justice.—Internal order and protection to person and property are secured by a large body of police. This force consists of two elements: a regular constabulary introduced by the English Government, and an indigenous police developed out of the rural watch of the ancient Hindu commonwealth, and paid by grants of land, or by the villages and landowners. In 1875-76, the strength of the regular police in Bengal was 86 superior officers, and 19,447 inferior officers and men. To these must be added the municipal police—stated at 6436—total, say 26,000. The village watchmen are not under regular police control, although they discharge police duties. The total number of village watchmen in Bengal is put down at 187,492, and the cost of their support, which is defrayed by the villagers, is estimated at

£435,000. The total number of persons brought to trial during the year 1875 was 159,366. Of these, 21,744 were discharged without trial, 35,812 were acquitted, and 93,135 convicted; 262 persons were found guilty of murder, 314 of culpable homicide, and 380 of *dákáiti* or gang robbery. The commonest offences are theft, 12,237 convictions; and assault, 11,962 convictions. The daily average prison population was 21,381, of whom 835 were women. These figures show 1 prisoner always in jail to every 3127 of the population, and 1 woman in jail to every 37,420 of the female population. The jail death-rate was 5·02 per cent. The total number of civil suits disposed of in 1875 was 328,049; of these, 125,075 were suits for money, etc., and 116,585 rent suits.

Education.—The number of scholars in all the schools supported, aided, or inspected by Government was, in 1875-76, half a million, or 5 per cent. of the children of a school-going age, assumed at 10 millions. The standard of instruction is virtually determined by the standard fixed in the examinations for scholarships. There are about 1124 scholarships annually divided between the primary, secondary, and superior schools. The grant-in-aid principle is generally in force. With very few exceptions, the whole of the primary and secondary schools, and a large portion of the superior schools and colleges, have been founded as private schools, receiving a subsidy from the State on the condition of conforming to certain rules and submitting to Government inspection. The remainder of the superior schools receive only a fixed grant from Government, and have to make up the remainder of the requisite income from fees or private resources. The five Government colleges and the normal schools are the only purely Government institutions in Bengal. In 1875-76, out of a total expenditure of £400,000 on education, £210,000 were paid by the State, and £190,000 by the people. The primary schools had 357,233 scholars, or 71 per cent. of the whole. The schools of secondary instruction were 1833 in number, with 118,087 scholars. At the head of these stand the *zilá* or District schools, established by Government at the headquarters of each District. Here candidates are prepared for the matriculation examination of the University of Calcutta. The University is, strictly speaking, an imperial rather than a provincial institution, as it exercises functions over the whole of the Bengal Presidency; but its seat is in Bengal, and the majority of its students belong to the Lower Provinces. Its function is to examine and confer degrees. The students for degrees must study at certain affiliated colleges, of which there are five in the interior of Bengal—at Patná, Dacca, Murshidábád, Húglí, and Krishnagarh. At Calcutta, one Government college and six private colleges receive grants-in-aid from the State.

Newspapers.—In 1875-76, there were 20 principal newspapers published in the vernacular, and about 36 of lesser degree, some o

them merely broadsheets, or 56 in all; but the number is constantly changing. The circulation of the 20 principal papers is believed to be about 20,000 copies, that of the lesser papers about 5000 copies. Apart from advertising sheets, there are about 12 newspapers published in English within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, with an estimated circulation of 12,000 copies. Of this circulation, about two-thirds are assigned to the Calcutta daily papers, *The Englishman*, *The Indian Daily News*, and *The Statesman*. One weekly paper, *The Hindu Patriot*, conducted by native gentlemen, but printed in English, also deserves special mention. The *Calcutta Review* is a high-class quarterly, to which many of the leading Indian administrators, soldiers, and statesmen have contributed during the past half-century.

CONCLUSION.—The cheapness of labour, as compared with European countries, enables the Government to perform its functions at a small cost. It has brought courts very near to the door of the peasant, and established a system of registration by which proprietary rights and transfers are cheaply and absolutely ascertained. A great department of public works has spread a network of roads over the country, connected Bengal by railways with other parts of India, and is endeavouring to control the rivers and husband the water supply, on which the safety of a tropical people depends. An organized system of emigration watches over the movements of the landless classes, from the overcrowded or unfertile Districts of the west to the rich under-populated territories on the east, and to colonies beyond the seas. Charitable dispensaries, and a well-equipped medical department, struggle to combat the diseases and epidemics which from time immemorial have devastated the Delta, and place the operations of European surgery within the reach of the poorest peasant.

Beni.—Town in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated on the Wainganga river, about 50 miles north-east of Bhandára town. Pop. (1870), 2569, residing in 534 houses. Small trade in locally-manufactured cotton cloth. The dyers of the village are noted for the excellence of their colours, and for their tasteful patterns for carpets, etc. Police outpost, and village.

Beniganj.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 21 miles south-east of Hardoi Town, and 16 miles north of Sandíla. A thriving Ahír village of 2284 inhabitants (1869), and 545 mud houses; police station; Government school; weekly market.

Beni Rasúlpur.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal; situated on the Kankái river; distant from Kadbá 6 miles, and from Purniah town 26 miles. Lat. 25° 37′ N., long. 87° 52′ E. The only village in the District, with a considerable number of masonry buildings.

Benúgarh.—The name of a fort in the Krishnaganj Subdivision of Purniah District, Bengal. Only the foundations and portions of the

walls remain, and the history of this and other ruins in the neighbourhood is involved in obscurity. The fort is one of five, which, according to local legend, were built in a single night by five brothers, Bráhmans, who are said to have lived in the Vikramáditya period, or about 57 B.C.

Berar.—*See* HYDERABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS.

Berhampur.—*Táluk* in Ganjám District, Madras. Houses, 50,619; pop. (1871), 243,945—being males, 119,857, and females, 124,088; classified according to religion—241,232 Hindus, 2007 Muhammadans (including 7 Wahábis), and 706 Christians. Chief town, Berhampur.

Berhampur (*Brahma-pur*).—Municipal town and military station in the Berhampur *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 18′ 40″ N., long. 84° 47′ 50″ E.; houses, 5443; pop. (1871), 21,670, being Hindus (19,673), Muhammadans (1519), and Christians (478); of the adult males, 18 per cent. are traders and 12 per cent. weavers. Situated on the Great Trunk Road, 525 miles north-east from Madras and 18 south-west of Ganjám and 19 from Chetterpur (Chatrapur), and connected by a good road with Gopálpur on the coast, the port of Berhampur. Municipal income, £1720 per annum; incidence per head (exclusive of military population), 1s. 3d. The military force consists of one native regiment. Being the headquarters of the District, Berhampur possesses all the public buildings and establishments of a station of first-class importance — sessions court house, magistrates' court, District jail and police station, *zilá* school, post and telegraph offices, etc. A considerable trade is conducted in sugar and silk cloth, manufactured from Chinese and Bengal cocoons. The Madras Bank has opened a branch here. The town is built upon a rocky ledge, surrounded by an extensive cultivated plain sloping towards the sea-coast, 6 miles distant, and it possesses an exceptionally healthy climate. The cantonment, as distinct from the old town, is known as Baupúr.

Berhampur (*Berhampore*, *Bahrámpur*). — Large municipal town and administrative headquarters of Murshidábád District, Bengal, and till within the last few years a military cantonment; situated on the left bank of the Bhágirathí, 5 miles below the city of Murshidábád. Lat. 24° 6′ 30″ N., long. 88° 17′ 31″ E.; pop. (1872), 27,110, comprising 20,742 Hindus, 5770 Muhammadans, 105 Christians, and 493 'others;' number of males, 14,849—females, 12,261; municipal revenue in 1872, £1148; incidence of municipal taxation, 10⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits. Berhampur was first selected as a site for military barracks in October 1757, shortly after the battle of Plassey, the factory house at Kásimbázár having been destroyed by Suráj-ud-daulá, and the fortifications dismantled in the previous year. A *sanad* (grant) was obtained from Mír Jafar for 133 acres of ground but the Court of Directors disallowed the project, and it was no

until 1765 that the present barracks were commenced, the immediate object of their construction being to secure Bengal against such another occurrence as the revolt of Mír Kásim in 1763. The barracks were completed in 1767, at a cost of £302,270. They still form the most prominent feature of the town, though of late years they have been rarely occupied by European troops, and have now (1875) been to a great extent appropriated to other uses. In 1786 they contained 2 regiments of Europeans, 7 or 8 of Sepoys, and 15 or 16 guns. By 1857, this garrison had dwindled down to 1 battalion of Native Infantry (the 19th), 1 of irregular cavalry, and 2 guns. After the Mutiny, European troops were again stationed here, but they were finally withdrawn in 1870. The cantonment will always be remembered as the scene of the first overt act of mutiny of 1857. The Sepoys of the 19th Native Infantry, who had been intensely excited by the story of the 'greased' cartridges, rose, on the night of the 25th February, in open mutiny, but were prevented from doing any actual harm by the firm and at the same time conciliatory behaviour of their commanding officer, Colonel Mitchell. An account of this event will be found in Sir John Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War* (3d edition, pp. 496-508), quoted in a condensed form in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ix. pp. 77–80. The civil offices and treasury are about a mile from the barracks south-west; the jail and lunatic asylum are within them. There are several churches in the town, and the cemetery contains some interesting memorial stones. A Government college, founded in 1853, was in 1871-72 attended by 21 students.

Beri (*Behri*, *Bheri*).—Petty State in Bundelkhand, lying between 25° 53′ and 25° 57′ 45″ N. lat., and between 79° 54′ 15″ and 80° 4′ E. long.; area, about 30 square miles; pop. (1877), 6000; revenue, £2100. The chief, Ráo Bijái Sinh, is a Puár Rájput, aged (1877) 30. He holds his territories by an *ikrárnáma*, or deed of fealty and obedience to the British Government, and a *sanad* from the Government confirming possession. He has also a *sanad* of adoption. He maintains a force of 25 cavalry and 125 infantry. Chief town, Beri.

Beri.—Municipal town in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 42′ N., long. 76° 36′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 9723, comprising 8992 Hindus, 705 Muhammadans, 4 Síkhs, and 4 Christians. Founded A.D. 930 by a trader of the Dogra caste. Great trade centre of the neighbourhood, and residence of many wealthy bankers; two largely frequented fairs, in February and October, in honour of the goddess Deví. Formed part of the *jágír* granted by the Marhattás to George Thomas, who took it by storm from a garrison of Játs and Rájputs. Police station, post office, school; frontier customs line passes the town. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £419, or 10⅞d. per head of population (9202) within municipal limits.

Beronda.—State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BARAUNDA.

Betágáon.—Large village or collection of hamlets in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; 12 miles from Rái Bareli town, on the road to Cawnpore; pop. (1869), 4297. Bi-weekly market. Annual fair in honour of Ananda Deví, the tutelary deity of the place, attended by about 5000 persons. Government school.

Betangá.—Trading village on the Chandná, in Farídpur District, Bengal. Lat. 23° N., long. 89° 57′ E. Estimated population (1872), 500. Chief articles of trade, rice and pulses.

Betáwad.—Municipal town in Khandesh District, Bombay. Lat. 21° 13′ 30″ N., long. 74° 57′ E.; pop. (1872), 3338; municipal revenue (1875), £100; rate of taxation, 7½d. per head of population (3106) within municipal limits.

Betgárí.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 52′ N., long. 89° 11′ E. Chief trade—rice, tobacco, jute, and gunny.

Betigeri.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay; 1 mile from Garag. Lat. 15° 26′ N., long. 75° 41′ E.; pop. (1872), 8716. Together with the neighbouring town of Garag, Betigeri forms a municipality. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £1182; rate of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head of population (19,035) within municipal limits. Betigeri is the seat of a weekly market, and has a considerable trade in cotton, and cotton and silk fabrics. The value of the transactions in raw cotton alone is estimated at upwards of £50,000 a year.

Betmangala. — *Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Area, 260 square miles; pop. (1871), 68,536; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rate, £9539, or 2s. 7d. per cultivated acre.

Betmangala.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore; on right bank of Pálár river, 18 miles by road south-east of Kolár. Lat. 13° 1′ N., long. 78° 22′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 1419. An ancient place, said to have been founded in the time of the Chola kings. It has now lost its prosperity, partly from increasing unhealthiness, and partly from the transfer of the *táluk* headquarters in 1864 to Bowring-pet.

Bettadpur. — Mountain in Mysore District, Mysore; 4350 feet above sea level. Lat. 12° 28′ 20″ N., long. 76° 8′ 20″ E. It is conspicuous for its conical shape, and on its summit stands a celebrated temple of Mallikarjuna, which has been struck by lightning. At the foot lies a village, the principal seat of the Sanketi Bráhmans; pop (1871), 2203. It is associated with the name of Chengal Ráya, a Jain prince of the 10th century, who is said to have been converted to th worship of the Linga. Until the time of Tipú Sultán, it was th residence of an independent chieftain.

Bettiá.—Subdivision of Champáran District, Bengal, lying betwe

26° 35′ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 83° 53′ 30″ and 84° 51′ E. long.; area, 2061 square miles; number of villages, 1149; number of houses, 106,690; pop. (1872), 575,161, comprising 490,108 Hindus, 83,826 Muhammadans, and 1227 Christians; average density of population, 279 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·56; houses per square mile, 52; persons per village, 501; persons per house, 5·4. The Subdivision was formed in 1852. In 1869, it contained 1 magisterial and revenue court, and comprised the 3 *thánás* (police circles) of Bettiá, Lauriyá, and Bagahá. Police force, 1549 men, of whom 1438 were village watchmen. The separate cost of Sub-divisional administration in that year was returned at £6566.

Bettiá.—The largest town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated on the Harhá river. Lat. 26° 48′ 5″ N., long. 84° 32′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872), 19,708, comprising 13,726 Hindus, 4809 Muhammadans, and 1173 Christians; number of males, 11,220—females, 8488. There is no municipality, but the gross income of the town fund in 1872 was £414; incidence of taxation, 5d. per head. Bettiá is the most important trade-centre in Champáran, and would be even more frequented if water communication could be kept open all the year round by the Harhá and Gandak rivers. The most noteworthy building is the palace of the Mahárájá of Bettiá, the wealthiest of the three great Champáran landlords, situated on the west side of the town. Close to it are the Roman Catholic church and mission-house. The town lies very low, and the surrounding country becomes a swamp during the rains.

Bettur.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 29′ N., long. 76° E.; pop. (1871), 1338. Said to have been the capital of the Yádava kings of Devágiri during the 14th century.

Betúl (*Baitool*).—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 20′ and 22° 35′ N. lat., and 77° 13′ 15″ and 78° 35′ 30″ E. long. Bounded on the north and west by Hoshangábád District, on the east by Chhindwára, while of its southern border the eastern half touches Nágpur District, and the western half marches with Berar. Pop. (1872), 284,055; area, 4118 square miles. The administrative headquarters are at Badnúr.

Physical Aspects.—Though essentially a highland country, with a mean elevation of 2000 feet above the sea, this District divides itself naturally into several portions, distinguished by their appearance, their soil, and their geological formation. BETUL, the chief town, occupies the centre of the District. It lies in a level basin of rich land, composed of a deep alluvial deposit entirely devoid of black soil. This tract is almost entirely under cultivation, being studded with numerous and thriving village communities. Through it flow the perennial streams of the Machná and Sámpná, while on every side but the west

steep ridges of igneous rocks shut it in. Westward, the Tapti winds through a deep valley clothed with dense jungle. Here, from time to time, rocks are discovered beneath the trap. Below this fertile plain a rolling plateau of basaltic formation spreads over the southern part of the District, with the sacred town of Multái at its highest point, till it is lost in the wild and broken line of mountains which parts Betúl from the low country beyond. Here and there fruitful valleys lie between the successive ridges of trap rock, and in a few places the shallow soil on the tops of the hills has been turned to account. But most of the land is barren; trees rarely occur; and the southern face of the District is bare and desolate. Above the town of Betúl extends a tract of poor land, thinly inhabited and meagrely cultivated, ending in the main chain of the Sátpura Hills, beyond which a considerable fall takes place in the general level of the country. North, again, lies an irregular plain of sandstone formation, well wooded, and presenting in places the appearance of a vast park; but the soil is mostly unfit for the plough, and barely rewards the labours of the few cultivators. To the extreme north, the District is bounded by a line of mountains rising sheer out of the great plain of the Narbadá (Nerbudda). The western portion of this region is a mass of hill and jungle, inhabited almost wholly by Gonds and Kurkús. It has but few hamlets, scattered over wide tracts of waste land, and seen from some neighbouring height, it appears a vast unbroken wilderness. Besides the Tápti, the Wardha and the Bel rise in the high plateau of Multái, which thus sends its waters both to the western and eastern coasts. The Tawá flows for a short distance only through the north-east corner of the District. The Machná, the Sámpná, and the Moran are the only other rivers of any size; but throughout Betúl, and especially among the trap rocks, a number of small streams retain water in places all the year round. Some use is made of them for irrigation. Forests cover a large extent of country. Five of the best timber-bearing tracts, with a total area of 495 square miles, have been reserved by the Government. They contain abundance of young teak, some magnificent *sáj* (Pentaptera glabra), *kawá* (Pentaptera arjuna), *shisham* (Dalbergia latifolia), *sálai* (Boswellia thurifera), and other excellent timber. The unreserved State forests extend over 952 square miles, and are under the management of the Deputy Commissioner.

History.—In earlier times, Betúl formed the centre of the Gond kingdom of Kherlá; but the history of this dynasty is comprised in an occasional mention of Ferishta. From him we learn that in the 15th century a contest was carried on with varying success between the Gond princes of Kherlá and the kings of Málwá. Later, it is said, a Gaulí power supplanted the ancient Gond chiefs, but again yielded to an uprising of the aborigines. Be this as it may, about 1700, Rájá

Bakht Buland, by race a Gond, but a convert to the religion of Islám, reigned at Deogarh over the whole of the Nágpur country below the *gháts.* He was succeeded by his son, who died in 1739, leaving two boys of tender years. Disputes as to the succession led to the interference of Raghojí Bhonslá, the Marhattá ruler of Berar, ending in the virtual annexation of Betúl to the kingdom of the Bhonslás. In 1818, after the defeat and flight of Appá Sáhib, this District formed part of the territory ceded to the British for payment of the military contingent; and by the treaty of 1826, Betúl was formally incorporated with the British possessions. Detachments of English troops were stationed at Multái, Betúl, and Sháhpur in 1818, in order to cut off Appá Sáhib's flight westward from Pachmarhi, but he evaded them and escaped. A military force was quartered at Betúl until June 1862.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the number of inhabitants of Betúl at 258,335. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 284,055 persons. After latest changes, the returns of 1877 give an area of 3904 square miles. The Census of 1872, however, still remains the only basis for a detailed examination of the population. It showed 284,055 persons, on an area of 4118 square miles, residing in 1150 villages or townships and 53,234 houses; persons per square mile, 69; villages per square mile, ·28; houses per square mile, 12·93; persons per village, 247; persons per house, 5·33. Classified according to sex, males, 144,606—females, 139,449; according to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 63,232, the female children, 60,791. Ethnical division (1877)—Europeans, 8; aboriginal tribes, 115,346; Hindus, 177,399; Muhammadans, 4786; Buddhists and Jains, 984; also 11 Native Christians, and 8 Pársís. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, 59,699 in 1872, and the Kurkús, 28,737, the remainder consisting of Bhíls, Bharias, etc. Among the Hindus, in 1872, the Bráhmans numbered 3312, the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Rájputs (4780), Kunbís (25,857), Kurmís (16,840), Gaulis (15,454), Bhuiyas (14,697), Dhers or Mhars (22,918). The Gonds are found in all the jungle villages, where they live by labour in the field. They are subdivided into about 20 tribes, and into at least 12 religious sects, distinguished by the number of gods each worships, seven being the favourite number. The lowest caste adores an indefinite but less important multitude, being obliged to content itself with the deities who chanced to be omitted when the legendary distribution of gods to each sect took place. The Kurkús have a faith different from that of the Gonds, and rather imitative of Hinduism. But, like the Gonds, they worship their ancestors, they 'wake' the dead, and celebrate births and marriages with drinking bouts. Among these tribes a suitor will serve for his wife for a fixed period, after the manner of Jacob. Both Kurkús and Gonds live

from hand to mouth, and often suffer great privations in seasons of scarcity.

Division into Town and Country.—Only three towns in the District have a population exceeding 2000—Betúl, 4593; Multái, 3371; and Badnúr, 2645. Townships of 1000 to 2000 inhabitants, 24; from 200 to 1000, 447; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 674.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3904 square miles, only 1064 are cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 1218 are returned as cultivable. 12,163 acres are irrigated entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 7d. per acre of the cultivated land, or 4d. on the cultivable land. The chief crops formerly consisted of wheat and pulses, but of late years cotton has been cultivated to a considerable extent; on the other hand, the production of sugar-cane has fallen off. Wheat is sown in October. No manure is used, and the fields are very rarely irrigated. The grain ripens early in the spring. In the hills, the villagers practise the *dáhya* system of cultivation. After clearing a piece of ground on a slope or on the edge of a stream, they cover the surface with logs of wood, and these again with brushwood. Before the rains, but not until the hot weather has thoroughly dried it, they set the wood on fire; finally, after the first fall of rain, they scatter the seed among the ashes, or, where the ground is steep, throw it in a lump along the top of the plot to be washed to its place by the rains. The average rent per acre of land suited for wheat is 2s.; the average produce per acre, 252 lbs. The price averages 5s. 10d. per cwt. How greatly the cultivation of cotton has extended appears from the fact that, whereas in 1872 only 2717 acres were devoted to this crop, cotton is now produced on 38,272 acres. During the same period its price per cwt. has risen from £2, 6s. 4d. to £2, 14s. 8d. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 860 proprietors, of whom, however, 650 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered nearly 26,000, of whom 7777 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 19,721 were tenants-at-will. Average wages per diem—skilled labour, 1s.; unskilled, 3d.

Commerce and Trade.—The internal trade of Betúl has but scanty proportions. In 1872, the persons engaged in commerce amounted only to 266, employing 61 shopmen. The single industry of importance is weaving, which afforded occupation to 4058 persons. Of the artisans, the blacksmiths and workers in the precious metals form the most numerous class. Coal exists at several places on the Machná and Tawá rivers; but, except at Ráwandeo on the Tawá, no seam is known to occur exceeding 3 feet in thickness. At present such coal probably could not be worked at a profit. Betúl is better provided with means of communication than any of the Sátpura Hill Districts. Five main roads radiate from Badnúr, running respectively toward

Nágpur, Hoshangábád, Mau, Ellichpur, and Chhindwára. Of these the first and fourth are partially bridged, the second bridged the whole way. In 1877, the total length of made roads was returned at 233 miles, being 2nd class 95, and 3rd class 138. The District has no navigable river, and no railway passes within its limits.

Administration.—By the treaty of 1826, Betúl District was formally incorporated with the British possessions. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with assistants and *tahsíldárs*; being divided for revenue purposes into 2 *tahsíls* (Multái and Betúl), and for police purposes into the six circles of Multái, Betúl, Atner, Sháhpur, Sáulígarh or Chicholí, and Bordihí, with 22 outposts. In 1868-69, the land revenue yielded £19,159; excise, £7219; assessed taxes, £1136; forests, £1218; stamps, £2743. The latest accurate returns give the total revenue for the year 1872-73 at £34,855, of which the land supplied £19,162. Under the old Marhattá Government each village had its *pátel* or head-man, who, besides exercising a certain jurisdiction, collected the revenue from the tenants, and paid it into the Government treasuries, after deducting his authorized percentage. This office was generally hereditary, but the exactions of the Marhattá Government in its wars at the beginning of this century drove out the *pátels*, and brought in a swarm of speculators, who farmed the villages for short periods at rack-rents. The villages continually changed hands; several often fell under the control of the same man, and the old *pátel* gave way to the modern *málguzár*. In 1837, however, a light Settlement for 20 years enabled those who then possessed estates to hold on and prosper; and it is on these men or their descendants that the Settlement lately completed has finally conferred proprietary right, subject only to the payment of the Government revenue and to the recognition of such tenant rights as have been recorded. Total cost in 1876-77 of District officials and police of all kinds, £11,153; number of civil and revenue judges within the District, 5; magistrates, 6; maximum distance of any village from the nearest court, 52—average distance, 22 miles; number of police, 340, costing £4827, being 1 policeman to every 11·5 square miles and to every 806 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 79, of whom 8 were females. The cost of maintaining and guarding the prisoners in that year was £477. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 29, attended by 1462 pupils. Of the three municipalities in 1876-77, BETUL, with a population of 4872, returned an income of £81, of which £72 was derived from taxation; MULTAI, with a population of 3576, returned an income of £123, of which £77 was derived from taxation; and BADNUR, with a population of 2858, returned an income of £98, of which £87 was derived from taxation. There is no octroi,

the only municipal taxes being those levied on houses and lands. Average rate of municipal taxation per head of the population—Betúl, 3½d.; Multái, 5d.; Badnúr, 7d.

Medical Aspects.—During the greater part of the year, Europeans find the climate of Betúl agreeable and not unhealthy. The elevation of the country, and the neighbourhood of extensive forests, temper the great heat of the sun; and even in the hot season the nights are invariably cool and pleasant. Between January and May, showers are not infrequent. Little or no hot wind is felt before the end of April, and even then it ceases after sunset. During the rains, the climate is sometimes cold and raw, thick cloud and mist enveloping the sky for many days together. The plateau on the Hill of Khámlá, in the south-west corner of the District, would afford an agreeable retreat to Europeans during the unhealthy season; but hitherto the scarcity of water has proved an insurmountable obstacle. In 1876, the rainfall at the civil station exceeded 55 inches, but 40 inches may be regarded as the usual fall. Average temperature in the shade at the civil station in the same year—May, highest reading 109° F., lowest reading 69°; July, highest reading 99°, lowest 63°; December, highest reading 80°, lowest 41° F. By far the most fatal complaint is fever, to which cause are generally due about 80 per cent. of the deaths throughout the District. Dysentery, also, and other bowel complaints, constantly prove fatal. No less than 1346 deaths from cholera were registered in 1876.

Betúl.—Revenue Subdivision or *tahsíl* in the District of the same name, Central Provinces; lying between 21° 21′ and 22° 21′ N. lat., and between 77° 13′ 15″ and 78° 15′ 45″ E. long.; pop. (1872), 196,954, dwelling in 845 townships or villages and 37,481 houses, on an area of 3159 square miles; land revenue, £12,211; total revenue, £12,949.

Betúl.—Town in the District of the same name, Central Provinces, and the civil headquarters before their removal to BADNUR, four miles distant. Lat. 21° 51′ 16″ N., long. 77° 58′ 7″ E.; pop. (1877), 4593, chiefly belonging to the Kurmí and Marhattá Bráhman castes; mostly agriculturists. Betúl has 2 schools, a police outpost, an old fort, and an English cemetery. Brisk trade in pottery.

Betúlpudiángadí.—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 10° 53′ N., long. 75° 58′ 15″ E.; houses, 1253; pop. (1871), 6003. Situated two miles east of the Tirúr railway station. Contains sub-magistrate and judges' courts, built with the materials of the palace of the Betúlnád Rájás, destroyed by Tipú Sultán in 1784.

Betwá.—River in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces. Between lat. 22° 55′ and 25° 55′ 45″ N.; long. 77° 39′ 30″ and 80° 15′ 30″ E. Rises in Bhopál State, 1½ mile south of the large tank at BHOPAL; flows south-east for 20 miles to Satapur, there takes a north-east course for 35 miles, crossing into Gwalior State, through which it proceeds in

same direction for 115 miles; thence enters Lálitpur District, forming the boundary between British territory and Gwalior; passes into Jhánsi, and through Hamírpur District, and finally falls into the Jumna about 3 miles below the town of Hamirpur. Total length, 360 miles. Chief tributaries, the Jamni, Dhasán, Koláhu, Páwan, and Barman. In the earlier part of its course it drains the Vindhyan Hills over a bed of sandstone; below Jhánsi, it flows upon a channel of granite; and 16 miles lower down arrives at the alluvial basin of the Jumna valley, through which it passes till it reaches the point of junction near Hamírpur. Above Jhánsi, the river presents a wild and picturesque appearance; and veins of quartz lying across its bed form barriers over which break several beautiful cascades. It is nowhere navigable, and of little use for irrigation; rises and falls rapidly; dry during hot weather in upper portion of its channel. Ordinary flood discharge, 200,000 cubic feet per second; in high floods, 500,000 cubic feet per second. The Betwá is crossed in various parts of its course by the high roads from Nimach (Neemuch), Cawnpore, and Gúna (Goona) to Ságar (Saugor), from Jhánsi to Nándgáon, and from Bánda to Kálpi. Crossings dangerous, and often impracticable.

Beypur (*Vaypura*, *Vada Perapanád;* named by Tipú, '*Sultánpatnam*').—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 10′ N., long. 75° 50′ 30″ E.; houses, 1102; pop. (1871), 6214. Situated near the mouth of the Beypur river, 6 miles south of Calicut. Though many attempts have been made to utilize the great natural advantages of its position, it was not until 1858, when Beypur was made a terminus of the Madras Railway, that the town became of importance. The Portuguese established a factory (Kalyán) here, but it failed; Tipú (*see* FEROKHI) selected it as the site of the capital of Malabar, but hardly a vestige of its short-lived importance has survived; in 1797 steam saw-mills, in 1805 a canvas factory, in 1848 ironworks, and later still, ship-building works were started here, but all from one cause or another have failed alike. In 1858, however, the railway created the present town, and Beypur is every year becoming busier. In 1875, the railway carried to and fro 53,000 tons of merchandise, the returns of the Company for the year showing an earning of £67,681. Being now a regular port of call for steamers, it possesses a custom house. A salt depôt has been established here, while all the coffee of the Ochterlony valley, with much from the East Wynád, comes to Beypur for export. Rice forms the staple of the import trade. The bar admits craft of 300 tons to the river, and at low spring tides gives soundings of 12 to 14 feet. Iron ore and coal both exist in the immediate vicinity of the town, and wood in great abundance. The teak grown on the *gháts* to the east is floated down to Beypur for exportation. A few miles from the town lies the site of FEROKHI, and 5 miles east is Chatapuramba ('Field of

Death'), remarkable for its ancient stone circles and monuments (*see* *Trans. Lin. Soc.*, Bombay, vol. iii. p. 324), resembling the cromlechs of Salem and Coimbatore, called by the natives *kode-kale* or 'umbrella stones.' Beypore being neither a civil nor military station, has no administrative offices. For details of traffic returns, *see* CALICUT.

Beypur (or *Panna-poya*, 'Gold River').—River in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 75° 50′ N., long. 76° 40′ E. Rises in the hills south of the Neddivattam Pass. After draining the Ochterlony valley, it descends by a series of cataracts over the Gháts north of the Kurkúr Pass. The scenery in this part of its course, owing to the precipitous and densely wooded banks, the boulder-strewn channel, and numerous waterfalls, is in the highest degree picturesque and wild. After reaching the low country the river receives many affluents, the chief being the Kurim-poyá—where a massive timber bridge spans the joint stream—the Kála-Bán-poyá, the Kurkúr-poyá, and the Mopmam. Then flowing gently past Ariákod, it joins the Kodiatúr. It debouches into the sea at Beypur, being joined near its mouth by the Kudelimdi, with which it forms the island of Chalium, containing the terminus of the Madras Railway. The Beypur is navigable for large boats all the year round as high as Ariákod, and during the rains much farther. The bar at its mouth has always at least 12 feet of water over it, and at high tides from 16 to 18 feet.

Beyt.—Island in the Gulf of Cutch (Kachchh), Bombay, lying between 22° 25′ and 22° 29′ N. lat., and between 69° 8′ and 69° 12′ E. long. It is a narrow and crooked strip of land, so that although it measures in a direct line from north-east to south-west 5 miles, its actual length is half as much again. The south-western half consists of a rocky table-land, about 50 or 60 feet high. Temples in honour of Krishna abound. The population consists principally of Bráhmans, supported by the offerings of pilgrims, with whom Beyt is a favourite place of resort. When the island was taken from the Wághirs by a British force in 1859, its fort and principal temples were blown up.

Bezwáda (*Bejaváda*).—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 83,081—including 77,513 Hindus, 5459 Muhammadans, and 104 Christians. Chief town, Bezwáda.

Bezwáda (*Bejaváda*).—Town in the Bezwáda *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 30′ 50″ N., long. 80° 39′ E.; pop. (1871) 8026. Situated on the Kistna river (here crossed by the most frequented ferry of the District) at the junction of the high roads from Madras to Calcutta, and from Haidarábád to the coast, 20 miles north-east from Gantur (Guntoor). Being also the *entrepôt* for most of the canal traffic of the Kistna delta, and connected by good water-ways with Ellore, Masulipatam, Coconada, and Rájáhmándrí, the town possesses a considerable internal trade. A fort erected here by the C

pany in 1760 was dismantled in 1820. Bezwáda possesses much interest for the antiquary, being by some identified with the Dhanakaketa of Hiouen Thsang, and containing rock-cut temples of the Buddhist period, as well as very ancient Hindu pagodas. The hill to the west is (like many others) pointed out as the site of the legendary fight between Arjun and Indra. During the excavations for the canals and anicut (which here crosses the Kistna), many valuable antiquarian discoveries were made.

Bhábhar.—State and town, Pálanpur Agency, Bombay.—*See* BABHAR.

Bhabuá.—Subdivision of Sháhábád District, Bengal, lying between 24° 40′ 15″ and 25° 24′ 30″ N. lat., and between 83° 21′ 30″ and 83° 56′ E. long.; area, 1037 square miles; number of villages, 1307; number of houses, 51,519; pop. (1872), 294,252, comprising 270,470 Hindus (91·9 per cent. of the population), 23,711 Muhammadans, and 71 'others'; average density of population, 284 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·26; houses per square mile, 49; persons per village, 225; persons per house, 5·7. The Subdivision was formed in 1865, and comprises the two *thánás* (police circles) of Bhabuá with Chánd, and Rámgarh. In 1870-71, it contained 2 magisterial and revenue courts, and a total police of 1497 men, of whom 1379 were village watchmen. The total separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year was returned at £4184.

Bhabuá.—Municipal town in Sháhábád District, Bengal, and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name. Lat. 25° 2′ 30″ N., long. 83° 39′ 35″ E.; area, 628 acres; pop. (1872), 5071, comprising 3849 Hindus, 1221 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian; number of males, 2566; females, 2505; municipal income (1872), £152; incidence of municipal taxation, 7⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Bhadársa.—Town in Fáizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh, on the banks of the Marhá river, 10 miles south of Fáizábád town, on the road to Sultánpur. Rámá is said to have met his brother Bharata at this place, and its name is derived from *bhayádarsa*—'the meeting of the brothers.' Pop. (1869), Hindus, 2554, and Musalmáns, 1757—total 4311, residing in 1018 houses. Six Muhammadan mosques. Hindu religious fair at Bharatakund, attended by about 5000 persons.

Bhadárwa.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 27 square miles; estimated revenue (1875), £3890, of which a tribute of £1907 is paid to the Gáekwár. The chief is Ráná Sardár Sinhjí.

Bhadaurá.—Petty State under the Gúna (Goona) Agency in Central India. It arose from a grant by Sindhia in 1820 to Mán Sinh, the ancestor of the present holder, on condition of his putting down a notorious robber and preventing theft. The grant comprises land held at a quit-rent, yielding an annual income of £230, half of which the

Thákur keeps for himself, the other half being paid to Sindhia. The present Thákur is Mohan Sinh, and his annual income in 1875 was estimated at £700. Chief town, Bhadaurá. Lat. 24° 47′ N., long. 77° 28′ E.

Bhadgáon.—Municipal town in Khandesh District, Bombay. Lat. 20° 38′ 30″ N., long. 75° 16′ E. Situated on the left bank of the Girná river, 48 miles east of Málegáon, and 34 miles south-east of Dhuliá. Pop. (1872), 6153; municipal revenue (1874-75), £108; rate of taxation, 4½d. per head of population (5665) within municipal limits. Bhadgáon has a sub-judge's court and a post office, and is the head-quarters station of a revenue officer and a police officer. In the neighbourhood are the Government model farm and the Jamdhá irrigation canal. Local trade in cotton, indigo, and linseed.

Bhadli.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of 15 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £2600; total payment, £136, of which £110 is British tribute. Chief village, Bhadli. Lat. 22° 1′ N., long. 71° 35′ E.

Bhadrá.—River in Mysore, which unites with its twin stream, the Tunga, to form the Tungabhadra. Lat. 13° 10′ to 14° N., long. 75° 10′ to 75° 40′ E. It rises in Kádur District, beneath the peak of Gangámúlá in the Western Gháts, not far from the sources of the Tunga, and after flowing in a north-easterly direction across that District, joins the Tunga at Kudali in the adjoining District of Shimoga. For the most part it runs between steep banks and amid dense forests, and its waters are little used for irrigation. There are 18 dams, from which 325 acres are supplied with water; at Benkipur it is crossed by a bridge. According to the Puranic legend, given under TUNGABHADRA, the Bhadra was formed by the right tusk of the boar *avatár* of Vishnu.

Bhadrá.—Chiefship in Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Lat. (centre) 21° 25′ N., long. 80° 33′ 30″ E.; pop. about 16,000; area, 128 square miles, of which 36 are cultivated.

Bhadráchalam.—Chief town of estate of same name in Upper Godávari District, Central Provinces. Pop. 2000, mostly Bráhmans and Telingas. The ancient temple of Rámchandra was built four centuries ago by Rishi Pratíshtha, but additions have been made from time to time. It consists of a main building with a fine dome, flanked by smaller temples on both sides. It is surrounded by a high wall, and may be ascended by steps from the bank of the Godávari. The sacred jewels are said to be of great value. There is a town school and a police outpost; the District post from Dumagudiem to Ellore passes through the town. About 10,000 people, chiefly from the coast, attend the fair held every April, when English and country cloth, sugar, opium, spices, hardware, etc., change hands to the value of about £5000.

Bhadrakh.—Subdivision of Balasor District, Bengal, lying

tween 20° 44′ and 21° 15′ N. lat., and between 86° 18′ 40″ and 87° E. long.; area, 909 square miles; number of villages, 1194; number of houses, 61,891; pop. (1872), 347,566, comprising 338,617 Hindus (97·4 per cent. of the population), 8498 Muhammadans, 20 Christians, and 431 'others'; number of males, 167,481, or 48·2 per cent. of the population—females, 180,085; average density of population, 382 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·31; houses per square mile, 68; persons per village, 291; persons per house, 5·6. The Subdivision was formed in 1847, and comprises the *tháná*s (police circles) of Bhadrakh, Básudebpur, Dhamnagar, and Mutoh. In 1870-71, it contained 2 magisterial and revenue courts, and a total police force of 1348 men, of whom 1202 belonged to the village watch.

Bhadrakh.—Headquarters town of Bhadrakh Subdivision, Balasor District, Bengal; situated on the high road between Calcutta and Cuttack. Lat. 21° 3′ 10″ N., long. 86° 33′ 25″ E.; estimated population (1870), 7801.

Bhadran.—Town in Guzerat (Gujarát), within the limits of Baroda territory, Bombay. Lat. 22° 21′ 30″ N., long. 72° 56′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 5056.

Bhadreswar (or *Bhadravatí*).—Site of an ancient city, now a petty village, in south-east of Cutch (Kachchh), Bombay. Most of the remains have been removed for building-stone; but the place is still interesting for its Jain temple, the pillars and part of the dome of a Sivaite shrine, with an interesting *wáv* or well and two mosques, one of the latter almost buried by drifting sand from the shore. A very ancient seat of Buddhist worship; but the earliest ruins now existing belong to temples erected subsequent to 1125 A.D., when one Jagadeva Sáh received a grant of Bhadreswar, and in repairing the temple 'removed all traces of antiquity.' Celebrated place of pilgrimage in the 12th and 13th centuries. Described by Mr. Burgess in his *Archæological Survey of Western India.*

Bhadreswar. — Municipal town in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat 22° 49′ 50″ N., long. 88° 23′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 7417, comprising 7129 Hindus and 288 Muhammadans; number of males, 3518—females, 3899; municipal income (1871), £337; incidence of municipal taxation, 10⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits. One of the chief trading places in Húglí. Principal staples—rice, paddy, oil-seeds, salt, pulses, and piece-goods.

Bhadwa. — Petty State of Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of 4 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue (1876), £1100; total payments, £163, of which £140 is British tribute. Chief village, Bhadwa; lat. 22° 5′ N., long. 70° 57′ E.

Bhága.—Mountain river in Kángra District, North-Western Provinces (lat. 32° 33′ 15″ to 32° 45′ 30″ N., long. 77° 1′ to 77° 26′ 15″ E.), and

one of the head-waters of the Chenáb; rises among the snow-beds on the north-west slopes of Bárá Láchá Pass; flows for 30 miles through wild and rocky uninhabited hills, hemmed in by broken cliffs; then reaches a fertile cultivated valley, with large arable tracts intervening between the channel and the mountains; passes Kielang, the chief village of Láhul, and finally joins the CHANDRA 5 miles farther down, at Tándi. The united stream thenceforward bears the name of CHENAB. Total length, 65 miles; average fall, 125 feet per mile.

Bhagabatípur.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 42′ N., long. 88° 5′ 30″ E.

Bhágalpur.—A Division or Commissionership under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 23° and 27° N. lat., and between 85° and 89° E. long.; area, 18,685 square miles; number of villages, 19,247; number of houses, 1,801,497; pop. (1872), 6,613,358, comprising 4,925,714 Hindus (74·5 per cent. of the population), 1,121,630 Muhammadans, 2469 Christians, 53 Buddhists, and 563,492 'others,' chiefly aboriginal tribes. Comprises the Districts of BHAGALPUR, the SANTAL PARGANAS, MALDAH, MONGHYR, and PURNIAH—all of which see separately. Bounded on the north by the independent State of Nepál, and Dárjíling District; on the east by the Districts of Jalpáigurí, Dinájpur, Maldah, Murshidábád, and Bírbhúm; on the south by the Districts of Bírbhúm, Mánbhúm, and Hazáríbágh; and on the west by Gayá, Patná, and Tirhut Districts.

Bhágalpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 32′ 30″ and 26° 35′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 21′ 15″ and 87° 33′ 30″ E. long.; area, 4268 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,826,290 persons. It is bounded on the north by the Independent State of Nepál; on the east, north of the Ganges, by the District of Purniah; on the south and on the east, south of the Ganges, by the Santál Parganás; and on the west by the Districts of Tirhut and Monghyr. The administrative head-quarters are at Bhágalpur, on the right or south bank of the Ganges.

Physical Aspects.—The District is divided into two nearly equal portions by the Ganges. The northern division forms a continuation of the great alluvial plain of Tirhut, being intersected by many rivers, which are connected with each other by innumerable *dhárs* or water-courses; the whole tract is liable to inundation by the flooding of these rivers, and by the overflow of the Ganges on its northern bank. The north-eastern portion of the District, formerly one of the most fertile regions in the sub-Tarái rice tract, has been completely devastated by changes in the course of the Kúsí; the country has been laid under deep layer of sand, and the once fertile soil is covered with high gras jungle, which gives shelter to tigers, buffaloes, and rhinoceroses. Th southern bank of the Ganges is protected against encroachments

the river by a ridge of limestone 2 miles broad, which extends for a distance of 60 miles, from near Monghyr to Colgong; and is thickly wooded with palms, mangoes, and jack-trees. South of this wooded bank, for a distance of 4 miles, the country is low, bare, and, except in the cold weather and spring, almost entirely uncultivated. Farther south again, the land rises a few feet; the soil is rich, and covered with rice and other crops; mango and palm groves abound, and numerous villages dot the plain. The chief rivers in the District besides the Ganges are the Tiljúgá, the Báti, the Dimrá, the Talabá, the Parwán, the Chúsan, the Chaulauní, the Loran, the Katná, the Dáús, and the Ghúgrí in the north, with the Chándan and Kúsí in the south. Very marked changes have taken place in the courses of the two most important of these rivers—the Ganges and the Kúsí. The stream of the Ganges in 1864 ran directly below the town of Bhágalpur, and steamers anchored close under the houses of the residents; a few years earlier the river flowed equally near the northern bank, formed by *pargandá* Chháí: its present course is between these limits. The channel of the Kúsí seems to have been advancing steadily westward for many centuries; the large trading village of Náthpur, which in 1850 lay some miles to the west of the river, has not only been swept away, but its site has been left many miles to the eastward.

History.—When the East India Company assumed the *díwání* of Bengal, Bhágalpur District formed the eastern part of the Muhammadan *sarkár* of Monghyr, and lay, with the exception of a single *parganá* (Chháí), to the south of the Ganges. At that time, the country to the south and west was in such an unsettled state, owing to the inroads of the hill tribes, that the exact boundaries of Bhágalpur in those directions cannot now be determined; and it was not until 1774 that an officer was specially deputed to ascertain the limits of the District. Down to 1769 the revenue and criminal jurisdiction continued in native hands. At the end of that year, an English Supervisor was appointed, who lived at Rájmahál, and whose duties were 'to obtain a summary history of the provinces, the state, produce, and capacity of the lands, the amount of the revenues, the cesses or arbitrary taxes, and of all demands whatsoever which are made on the cultivators, the manner of collecting them, and the gradual rise of every new import, the regulations of commerce and the administration of justice.' He did not, however, actually supervise the collectors. In 1772, when the Company determined to take the management of the revenue into its own hands, it was found that, during the previous seven years, more than £50,000 of the land revenue had been regularly embezzled annually. Measures were at once taken to place the collection on a satisfactory footing; the *zamíndárs* were ordered to live on their estates and attend to the collection of their rents, and were imprisoned if they fell into arrears. The next point to which the

attention of the Collector was turned was the administration of criminal justice. The southern portion of the District was, as has been stated, subject to constant inroads from hill tribes. The ravages of these marauders became more and more serious. In December 1777 and January 1778, forty-four villages were plundered and burnt, and in May of the latter year the hillmen had become so daring that some of the Collector's tents were carried off from within a few miles of the civil station of Bhágalpur. Large gangs of plunderers traversed the District, and life was as insecure as property. It had become a matter of supreme importance to pacify these hill tribes. Mr. Cleveland, who was then Collector of the District, set himself earnestly to the task, and, in conjunction with Captain James Browne, of Rájmahál, originated and carried out a scheme which resulted in the engagement of 1780 and the pensioning of the hill chiefs. The history of these proceedings will be found in the article on the SANTAL PARGANAS. From this date, the District entered upon a new phase of its history. The ravages of the hillmen, it is true, did not at once cease, but the prompt measures with which each renewed attempt at disturbance was met, eventually succeeded in producing the desired impression, and before the end of the last century the country was finally freed from the inroads of the marauders. The prosperity of the District has gradually increased during the present century. Cultivation has spread; trade is flourishing; education is being rapidly extended; the people are prosperous; and property and person are safe.

There have been many changes of jurisdiction in the District, and it has little by little lost the character of a South Gangetic tract, which it possessed when it came into our hands; in 1864, 700 square miles of country on the north of the river were added to it. The various jurisdictions are now all conterminous.

Population.—The population of Bhágalpur, according to the Census of 1872, amounts to 1,826,290 persons, dwelling in 2739 villages or townships, and in 329,372 houses; average pressure of population on the soil, 422 persons per square mile. The great bulk of the population—89·8 per cent.—are Hindus; 9·3 per cent. are Muhammadans; the number of Christians is 532 (of whom 363 are native converts), and of Buddhists 19; the remainder of the population profess variou aboriginal beliefs. The number of aborigines in the District is 31,18 (of whom 16,468 are Santáls), and of semi-Hinduized aborigine 317,943. The number of high-caste Hindus (Bráhmans, Rájputs, ar Ghátwáls) is 105,386; belonging to agricultural, pastoral, and labouri castes there are 543,943 (including 335,137 Goálás, the most nun rous caste in Bhágalpur); and of trading and artisan castes, 200,4 The population of the District is almost entirely rural, and there are o two municipal towns containing more than five thousand inhabitant

namely, BHAGALPUR (population, 69,678), and COLGONG (population, 5239). Of villages containing fewer than five hundred inhabitants, there are 1630; 613 contain from five hundred to a thousand inhabitants; 480 have from one to five thousand. The following fourteen villages, or rather groups of villages, contain over five thousand inhabitants:—Kandhár (10,502), Jamdahá (8628), Mantla Kobiahí (7925), Kujhí (7743), Srípur Changárí (6071), Parmanandpur (5998), Chitauní (5875), Mahesí (5678), Parbatá Deori (5500), Píprahí, (5395), Súkhásan (5376), Nauhátá (5353), Karuk (5330), and Gulahán (5122).

BHAGALPUR, the chief town and administrative headquarters of the District, is situated on the right or south bank of the Ganges. Near the town are two interesting Muhammadan shrines, and in the western suburb the heretical sect of the Oswáls have two curious places of worship. The only other objects of special interest in Bhágalpur are the Karnágarh Hill or Plateau, which formerly contained the lines of the Hill Rangers (embodied by Mr. Cleveland, the Collector, about 1780), and now held by a Native regiment, and the monument erected to that gentleman by the Directors of the Company. COLGONG (Kahalgáon) was, until quite recently, a place of great commercial importance, being on the main stream of the Ganges; but the river has now entirely receded, and a large number of traders have left the place in consequence. Mahmúd Sháh, the last independent king of Bengal, died here. Umarpur, Khandaulí, Baluá, and Sultánganj are considerable trading villages; the last mentioned is situated on the bank of the Ganges, and is conspicuous for two large rocks of granite, on the top of one of which is a Muhammadan mosque, while the other is crowned by a Hindu temple, dedicated to Siva. The little village of Singheswarthán is the scene of a frequented elephant fair. But the most interesting place in the District is MANDARGIRI, the sacred hill, which is fabled to cover the body of the giant who attempted to destroy Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva. Vishnu struck off the monster's head, and in order to prevent the headless trunk from rising and shaking off the weight which covers it, the god keeps his foot ever on the hill, which is, in consequence, a spot of the greatest sanctity in Hindu mythology. It is a huge mass of granite, 700 feet high, and bare, save near the summit and on one side, where it is overgrown with low jungle. Coiling round the hill, the figure of a great serpent has been cut in relief; one of the legends connected with Mandar being, that it was the hill used by the gods and Asurs to churn the ocean. Besides being a favourite place of pilgrimage, Mandar Hill possesses great interest for the antiquary, and abounds with remarkable ruins, and natural and artificial curiosities. A detailed account of these will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 95-102.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in the District is rice, but this staple does not bear the same relative importance in Bhágalpur as in most other Districts of Bengal. It has been introduced at a comparatively recent period, and is still too scarce and dear to be the common food of a people who have long been accustomed to support life on more hardy grains and on jungle produce. The rice produced is for the most part exported. The *bhadaí* or early crop is sown in May and reaped in August; the *aghaní* rice is also sown in May, but reaped in December and January. Among the other crops grown in the District are wheat, Indian corn, several kinds of millet, peas, oil-seeds, and indigo. Indian corn forms the staple food of the poor of Bhágalpur; it is sown in April or May, and ripens in August. When grown on high land this crop requires irrigation. The out-turn varies from 11 to 18 cwts. per acre. Indigo, which covers about 10,000 acres in the District, is sown in October and cut in the beginning of the rainy season. The area under *aghaní* rice in Bhágalpur is estimated at 1,137,100 acres, and that under *bhadaí* crops, including Indian corn, at 552,260 acres. Wages have increased considerably since the opening of the E. I. Railway. Coolies now get $2\frac{1}{4}$d. (women, $1\frac{7}{8}$d.) a day; formerly their pay was $1\frac{1}{8}$d. to $1\frac{1}{2}$d. Smiths and carpenters, who formerly got $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to $2\frac{5}{8}$d., now receive $3\frac{3}{4}$d.; bricklayers get 6d. a day, or double their former wages. Agricultural day-labourers are paid in kind, generally receiving only a day's food in return for the day's work. The price of the best cleaned rice varies from about 4s. 8d. to 7s. 6d. a cwt.; common rice from 4s. 1d. to 7s.; wheat from 4s. 5d. to 5s. 10d.; and Indian corn from 2s. 2d. to 3s. 6d. per cwt. The greater portion of Bhágalpur consists of permanently settled estates, and there are very few intermediate permanent rights between the *zamíndár* and the cultivator. *Zamíndárís* are generally let on short leases to farmers, who try to make as much as they can during their term, and never attempt to improve the condition of the tenantry or the land. The District contains 4364 revenue-paying tenures held direct under Government; 3004 intermediate tenures; 7876 *lákhiráj*, and 1618 service tenures. Among the last are more than 200 held by *ghátwáls;* the nature of these *ghátwálí* holdings is explained in the article on BANKURA DISTRICT. Rents vary greatl[y] according to the nature of the soil and the position of the land. In th[e] north, the rates are generally low, except in *parganá* Nárídigar, which is exceedingly fertile. The lowest rates of all are to be found in the neig[h]bourhood of the Kúsí, which is always changing its course.

Natural Calamities.—Bhágalpur has suffered from time to time fr[om] scarcity, and there are records of famines in 1770, 1775, 1779, a[nd] 1783. Between 1783 and 1865-66, the year of the great Orissa fami[ne], the District seems to have been free from this scourge. In the fam[ine] of 1866 Bhágalpur suffered considerably, and the price of rice ros[e]

12s. 9½d. per cwt. The highest average number of persons relieved gratuitously was 1108, and the largest average number employed on relief work during any month was about 700. There was a good deal of sickness, but no epidemic prevailed. In 1874, when the District was again threatened with famine, measures were taken on an extensive scale to avert such a calamity. The expenditure incurred in dealing with the scarcity was over £91,000, exclusive of the cost of the Government and locally-purchased grain, and of the carriage of the former by rail from Calcutta. A large proportion of this expenditure, however, consisted of advances, which were intended to be recovered, and have since been partially realized.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal manufacture of the District is indigo, of which the annual out-turn is 125 tons, selling in ordinary years for about £70,000. The weaving of *tasar* silk cloth gives employment to a considerable number of persons in the District, but this industry appears to be slowly dying out. Several kinds of coarse glass are made, and cotton-weaving and the manufacture of saltpetre are carried on to a limited extent. The trade of the District is yearly increasing, the principal exports being rice, wheat, gram, barley, Indian corn, and oil-seeds, and the chief imports, salt, sugar, and piece-goods; the exports largely exceed the imports in value. The chief wholesale business is with Lower Bengal, but there is also considerable traffic between Nepál and Bhágalpur, the principal exports from Bhágalpur being rice and other cereals, and the chief imports, mustard-seed and paddy.

Administration.—The revenue and expenditure of Bhágalpur have greatly increased since the beginning of the present century. In 1799, the net revenue of the District amounted to £34,747, and the expenditure to £55,226; by 1860-61, the revenue had increased to £85,637, while the expenditure amounted to £54,148; and in 1870-71, the net revenue was £139,535, and the net expenditure, £80,323. The land revenue has varied very much from time to time, owing to changes in the extent of revenue jurisdiction; it was very low indeed in 1799, amounting only to £30,973. By 1860-61, it had increased to £57,904, and in 1870-71 it was £72,160. The assessment per acre is extremely low throughout the District, particularly on the north of the Ganges, while the value of land has increased enormously since the beginning of the century. During the same period, subdivision of property has also gone on very rapidly, the number of estates being thirty-fold and the number of proprietors nearly eighty-fold what it once was. Bhágalpur is divided for administrative purposes into four Subdivisions—the *Sadr* Subdivision (986 square miles in extent), Bánká (1164 square miles), Madahpurá (872 square miles), and Súpúl (1275 square miles). There has been a steady increase in the machinery for the protection of person

on the road from that place to Lálganj. Picturesquely situated on rising ground, surrounded by numerous groves. Pop. (1869), 2789 Hindus, 1234 Muhammadans—total, 4023.

Bhainsror (*Bhainsrorgarh*, *Bánsror*).—Fort in Kotah State, Rájputána; situated on the summit of a lofty rock in the angle of confluence where the Bhámani river falls into the Chambal. Lat. 24° 58′ N., long. 75° 36′ E. Distance (direct) from Kotah, 22 miles south-west; from Ujjain, 127 north. The rock varies from 300 to 700 feet in height above the average level of the river, by which its base is washed on all sides but the north. In this direction the fort is accessible, but the slope has been artificially scarped. The place could, without much difficulty, be reduced by shells; and even before the introduction of artillery was taken by Alá-ud-dín, Pathán King of Delhi (1295-1316). The stream is 500 yards wide, and, even in the dry season, 40 feet deep; it is very rapid and violent, there being a fall of between 30 and 40 feet above the fort, and another of equal depth below.

Bhainswál. — Village in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; distant from Muzaffarnagar town 27 miles. Pop. (1872), 3004; more than 100 brick-built houses, owned chiefly by Játs, Bráhmans, and Banias. The village lies very low, close to and west of the main channel of the Eastern Jumna Canal; in the rains it is entirely surrounded by water, and there is a good deal of sickness in consequence. Average annual rainfall for the seven years ending 1872-73, 25·8 inches. In the centre of the village is a mound 30 feet high, said to contain the grave of Pír Gháib, the founder. Branch post-office.

Bhairabi.—River in Darrang District, Assam, flowing south from the Aka Hills in a tortuous course, and falling into the Brahmaputra. It is navigable throughout the year by large country boats, and is nowhere fordable. The stream is said to bring down much gold dust.

Bhairágniá.—Village and large grain depôt in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the Nepál frontier, a little to the north of Asogí. Lat. 26° 44′ N., long. 85° 22′ E. The Nepál trade changes hands at this place, where the dealers of the plains meet the hillmen. A registering station for traffic was opened here in the beginning of 1876.

Bhairogháti.—In Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces; confluence of the Bhágirathi with the Jahnavi, in a deep gorge, confined by perpendicular walls of granite; considered a place of great sanctity, and visited by Hindu pilgrims from all parts of India. Lat. 31° 2′ N., long. 78° 54′ E.

Bhaisaunda.—One of the Kálinjar Chaubí *jágírs* under the Bundelkhand Agency, in Central India. Area, 12 square miles; estimated population in 1875, 6000; revenue, £1100. It is a rule of succession in the

Kálinjar family, that when heirs fail to any sharer, the share is divided among the surviving branches of the family. The share of Bhaisaunda is held by Chaubí Tirat Prasád, who is a Hindu and a Bráhman. The *jágírdár* has about 80 foot soldiers.

Bhajji.—One of the Punjab Hill States in political subordination to the Punjab Government, lying between 31° 7′ 30″ and 31° 17′ 45″ N. lat., and between 77° 2′ 30″ and 77° 23′ 15″ E. long. TheRáná, Ran Bahádur Sinh, is a Rájput. The founder of the family came from Kángra and acquired possession of the State by conquest. The Gurkhás overran the country between 1803 and 1815, and were expelled by the British Government, on which theRáná was confirmed in possession of his State by *sanad*. Area, 96 square miles; pop. about 19,000; revenue, £2300. An annual tribute of £144 is paid to the British. Sentences of death passed by the Ráná require confirmation; other punishments are awarded on his own authority.

Bhakkar.—*Tahsíl* of Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, lying along the eastern bank of the Indus, between the desert and the river; only slowly reclaimed and colonized by Ját and Baluch settlers within the last three centuries. Area, 1022 square miles; pop. (1868), 98,236, or 96·05 per square mile.

Bhakkar.—Municipal town in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 31° 37′ 43″ N., long. 71° 5′ 52″ E.; pop. (1868), 5554, comprising 2666 Hindus, 2742 Muhammadans, 58 Síkhs, 6 Christians, and 82 'others.' Situated on the deserted left bank of the Indus. Founded probably towards the close of the 15th century by a body of colonists from Derá Ismáil Khán, led by a Baluch adventurer, whose descendants long held the surrounding country, till ousted by the grantees of Ahmad Sháh Duráni. Municipal income in 1875-76, £216, or 10¾d. per head of population (4803) within municipal limits.

Bhalála.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Lat. 22° 51′ N., long. 71° 56′ E.; estimated revenue in 1876, £204, of which about £47 is paid as British tribute.

Bhalgám Buldhoi.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £200; British tribute payable, £20. Bhalgám village, 22° 27′ N., long. 70° 54′ E.

Bhalká.—One of the WESTERN DWARS of Bhután. Area in 1870, 119 square miles; number of 'enclosures,' 488; number of houses, 856; pop. (1870), 6544, of whom 3460 were males and 3084 females; average density of population, 55 per square mile; houses per square mile, 7·19; persons per 'enclosure,' 13·41; persons per house, 7·64. Of the total area of 76,041 acres, 9070 are cultivated and 66,971 uncultivated.

Bhálusná.—Tributary State and town within the Political Agency of Máhi Kánta, in the Province of Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay. Lat. 23° 50′ 30″ N., long. 72° 50′ E.; estimated area, 59 miles; pop. (1872), 3548; gross revenue, including transit dues, £300. The products are sugar-cane, wheat, millet, and Indian corn. There is 1 school, with 22 pupils. The present (1875) chief is twenty-five years of age; he is a Hindu, a Parmár Koti by caste. His name is Muláji, and his title Thákur. He holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption. In matters of succession his house follows the rule of primogeniture. A tribute of £111, 14s. is payable to the Gáekwár, and £48, 10s. to the State of Edar.

Bham.—Town (deserted) in Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 13′ 30″ N., long. 78° 3′ E.; 16 miles south of Yewatmál. Vast stone ruins, covering a large area, bear witness to the city camps which followed the standard of Raghojí Bhonslá. Tradition relates that of Bairágis (religious mendicants) alone, there were no fewer than 5000 houses. The site is now dense jungle, inhabited only by bears and tigers.

Bhámgarh.—Town in Nimár District, Central Provinces; 8 miles east of Khandwa town. Pop. (1870), 2240, chiefly cultivators. Weekly market and vernacular school.

Bhán.—Government town in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Lat. 26° 33′ N., long. 67° 56′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 1084, chiefly agricultural—833 Muhammadans, 251 Hindus. Staging bungalow.

Bhan.—Revenue circle in Shwegyeng District, Tenasserim, British Burma. Area, 235 square miles, of which only a small part is under cultivation; pop. (1876), 3846, chiefly Karengs; gross revenue (1876-77), £4951. The river Múttama (or Madama) forms its southern boundary.

Bhan-bhwai-gún. — Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 246; gross revenue (1876), £78.

Bhan-byeng.—Revenue circle in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 114 square miles; pop. (1876), 3373. A level tract, but in its western portion, which occupies the valley of the Nga-wet river, covered with forests. Ridges of the Arakan Hills cross the District, terminating in the Kyouk spur, beyond the eastern boundary of this circle. Number of acres under regular cultivation, 500, out of a total area of 70,400 acres, of which 67,840 acres are uncultivable; gross revenue (1876), £540.

Bhan-byeng.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 1261. Situated in the valley of the Pouk-khoung, on the lower slopes of the Pegu Yoma Mountains, and south of the Naweng river. Gross revenue, with Tsheng-gaw circle (1876-77), £199.

Bhándak.—The eastern *parganá* of the Warora *tahsíl*, in Chánda

District, Central Provinces. Lat. (centre) 26° 10′ N., long. 79° 10′ E.; area, about 384 square miles, mainly hill and forest.

Bhándak.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; 18 miles north-west of Chánda. Lat. 26° 6′ 30″ N., long. 79° 9′ 15″ E. Contains 470 houses, scattered over a large extent of ground; and is surrounded, except on the west, by ancient groves and jungle. Tradition runs that here stood the great city of Bhadrávatí, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*, extending from Bhatálá to the Jharpat, the scene of the battle for the Sámkarna horse. The demi-god Bhíma, whose footprint is still pointed out on the Dewála Hill, bore away the horse for sacrifice by Dharma, the king. The temple-caves at Bhándak and in the Dewála and Winjhásaní Hills, the traces of forts on those hills, the temple of Bhadrávatí, the foundations of the king's palace, the bridge over a now dried-up lake, and numerous ruined temples and tanks, testify to the existence here of a great city in the remote past. Bhándak now forms the scene of an important fair, held in February, but at other seasons it carries on but little trade. It has Government schools for boys and girls, a police station-house, a District post office, and a *sarái.* The residents are chiefly Marhattás.

Bhandára.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 38′ 30″ and 21° 46′ N. lat., and between 79° 29′ 30″ and 80° 43′ 30″ E. long.; bounded on the north by Seoni and Bálághát, on the south by Chánda, on the east by Ráipur, and on the west by Nágpur. Population in 1872, 564,813; area, 3922 square miles. The administrative headquarters are at BHANDARA, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—Towards the west, Bhandára stretches out in an open plain to the banks of the Wáinganga, which flows along the whole length of the western border; on the north and east, hills, inhabited chiefly by Gonds and other wild tribes, shut it in. Upwards of one-third of the District is covered with jungle. Few of its mountains attain any considerable size. Several small forest-clad ranges, branching from the great Sátpura chain, run into the interior, generally in a southerly direction. Another low range, known as the Ambagarh or Sendurjharí, skirts the south of the Chándpur *parganá.* The only isolated peaks worthy of notice are the Baháhi, Kanheri, and Nawagáon Hills. These consist mostly of granitic rock, but near the Wáinganga sandstone shows itself in patches among the heights on the west bank of the Gárhví and Bágh rivers. In the upper portion of the course of the Bágh, porphyry is extensively disclosed, with crystals of quartz, and of white and sometimes red felspar, imbedded in a dark mass of the same materials. Of the rivers of Bhandára, the Wáinganga alone retains water through the hot season. Into the Wáinganga fall the Báwantharí, the Bágh, the Kanhán, and the Chulban, the only other important

streams in the District. But it is the lakes and tanks, of which there are said to be no fewer than 3648, that form the most striking feature of Bhandára. By taking advantage of the dips and hollows afforded by an undulating country, or by excavating artificial basins and throwing long dams across sloping ground, sheets of water, often of enormous size, have been formed. 'These tanks,' writes a former Chief Commissioner, Sir Richard Temple, 'are so numerous and some of them so large, being many miles in circumference, that this tract might almost be called the lake region of Nágpur. Here a tank is not a piece of water with regular banks, crowned with rows or avenues of trees, with an artificial dyke and sluices, and with fields around it, but it is an irregular expanse of water; its banks are formed by rugged hills covered with low forests that fringe the water, where the wild beasts repair to drink; its dykes, mainly shaped out of spurs from the hill, are thrown athwart the hollows, a part only being formed by masonry; its sluices often consist of chasms or fissures in the rock; its broad surface is often, as the monsoon approaches, lashed with surging and crested waves.' The principal lakes bear the names of Nawágáon, Seoni, and Siregáon. Besides the numbers now existing, many ruined tanks are dotted about the country, but their restoration would require such an outlay as to render the undertaking of doubtful advantage. Owing to the large extent of forest, wild animals abound. The tiger and the panther cause the greatest destruction to human life; and during the rainy season many persons die from the bites of venomous snakes. Ninety-eight deaths from these causes were registered in the year 1876. Deer of all kinds and wild pigs swarm in the woods, and frequently inflict great injury upon the crops.

History.—Of the early history of Bhandára nothing is known, except that the legendary Gaulís are said at some remote period to have overrun the country. The Gaulís of the present day are a wandering and pastoral race, who encamp in the jungles, and only visit the villages to sell their cattle or dairy produce, and to purchase provisions. Possibly the Muhammadan princes of the Deccan at one time included Bhandára in their dominions, but not till the end of the 17th century can our information be relied upon. We then find the District under the rule of the Gond Rájá of DEOGARH. Bakht Buland, the founder of the dynasty, purchased the support of Aurangzeb by his conversion to the Muhammadan faith. Under his government a number of Rájputs, Lodhís, Ponwárs, Korís, Karás, and Kunbís were attracted into the District, settling chiefly in the villages near the Wainganga. Their industry and agricultural skill greatly improved the country, especially in the region of Pauní. The Marhattás under Raghojí I. conquered these parts about 1738, but they were not formally administered from Nágpur until 1743. Under the Bhonslás a number

of the commercial and soldier castes—Márwárís, Agarwálas, Lingáyats, and Marhattá Kunbís—established themselves in the District. In 1817, when Appá Sáhib was at war with the British, he sent the ladies of his palace, with his jewels and other valuables, for security to Bhandára. On the surrender of Nágpur, the English troops escorted them back to that city. The next year Chimná Pátel, *zamíndár* of the Kámtha and Warúd *tálukas*, rebelled against the British Government, when Captain Gordon was deputed to Kámtha, and put a speedy end to the disturbance. The District was then administered by Captain Wilkinson, at first from Kámtha, but after 1820 from Bhandára. In 1830, Rájá Raghojí III. attained his majority and succeeded to the government, which he continued to hold till his death in 1853. On the 11th October 1854, Captain C. Elliot was appointed Deputy Commissioner of the District, and since then the history of Bhandára has been one of peaceful progress. During the Mutiny of 1857-58, the District remained perfectly tranquil. Three companies of infantry and a small body of horsemen were stationed at Bhandára until 1860, but since that time the police have constituted the only armed force.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Bhandára at 608,480; the more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 564,813; the latest estimate, in 1877, indicates a total of 593,624. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 564,813 persons, on an area of 3922 square miles, residing in 1589 villages or townships and in 106,121 houses, 2352 of which were classed as of the better sort; persons per square mile, 144·01; villages per square mile, ·41; houses per square mile, 27·06; persons per village, 355·45; persons per house, 5·32; number of males, 279,284—females, 285,529. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 9; Eurasians, 18; aboriginal tribes, 85,498; Hindus, 496,235; Muhammadans, 11,240; Buddhists and Jains, 545. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds (80,661), the remainder consisting of Kurkús, Kols, and others. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans in 1872 numbered 5989, and the Rájputs 4495, the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Dhers or Mhars (94,703), Kunbís (65,284), Ponwárs (45,404), Málís (23,593), Telís (30,750), Goarís (34,910), Kálárs (21,806), Dhimárs (23,831), and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 47. The language in common use is Marhattí, though from the neighbourhood of Urdu-speaking regions, Urdu is understood generally through the District, and Urdu words and idioms have largely impaired the purity of the Marhattí spoken in Bhandára. The Gonds and other castes use also their peculiar languages, intelligible only to themselves.

The inhabitants of Bhandára, even among the higher classes, have a reputation for bluntness and discourtesy; nor do they compensate for

this defect by their candour or manliness. Indeed, the two proverbs most frequently in their mouths by no means tend to a practice of the virtues which are usually associated with a rude simplicity—'Charity remains at home,' and 'The perfection of wisdom is deceit.' These are the favourite sentiments of a native of Bhandára. Good treatment, however, will generally bring out honesty and industry among the Gonds, and the Ponwárs make hard-working agriculturists. But the population generally have none of the hardy, active habits often found in Northern India. Rarely does a person of the higher rank mount a horse; for nearly every journey, long or short, he has recourse to a small two-wheeled ox-cart. And it is not easy to get a fair day's work out of the labourer. Cheap food and a stationary population, a mild, equable climate, and a landlocked district without roads, have doubtless contributed to produce these characteristics; and as the country is being opened up, greater activity already manifests itself. Nowhere, perhaps, in India is the marriage tie less regarded than among the lower castes in Bhandára, particularly the Ponwárs, Lodhís, and Kunbís. In this licence the women take the lead, often divorcing themselves from their husbands, and selecting, of their own free will, successive partners, without any opposition from their lawful lords. All, moreover, except the higher castes of Hindus, practise the ceremony called *pát*, resembling the *niká* marriage common among Muhammadans, by which, after the death of a first husband or wife, a pair agree to live together in recognised concubinage. In this District, contrary to the general custom, girls receive more honour than boys; and the usual method of betrothals is reversed, as the relatives of a boy are fain humbly to supplicate the parents of the girl whose hand they would win, instead of being sought after themselves. The general ignorance discovers itself in the loose notions entertained by the people regarding the respect due to the various Hindu divinities. Phallic worship is almost universal throughout the District; and all kinds of quadrupeds, and various reptiles, receive the adoration of their several votaries. Remarkable sepulchres become objects of reverence; and a large tomb near the village of Murmárí, about 10 miles from Bhandára, where rest the remains of an English lady, is held in great veneration by the surrounding villagers. The few Muhammadans in the District are notorious for neglect of their religious duties, and for their disorderly and dissipated life.

Four towns in Bhandára each have a population exceeding 5000, viz. BHANDARA, the District capital (11,433), PAUNI (8973), TUMSAR (7367), and MOHARI (6183). Townships of 1000 to 5000 inhabitants number 59; from 200 to 1000, 852; villages containing fewer than 200 inhabitants, 674. The four large towns constitute the only municipalities, their population within municipal limits being—Bhandára,

12,183; Pauni, 9522; Tumsár, 7817; and Mohári, 6560,—making a total of 36,082, thus leaving 557,542 as forming the strictly rural population.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3922 square miles, only 1128 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 1285 are returned as cultivable; 320,863 acres of the cultivated land are irrigated entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 1s. 2d. per acre of cultivated land, or 6½d. on the cultivable land. Rice constitutes the staple crop, no less than 426,605 acres being devoted to this purpose; wheat, 65,931 acres; other food grains, 272,442. Oil-seeds, the only other crops extensively cultivated, occupy 49,018 acres. The beginning and the end of the rains are the sowing times. The chief autumn crop is rice; the chief spring crops are wheat and gram. In northern Bhandára, as soon as the rice harvest has been garnered, the husbandmen cut the dam, let the water out of the tank, and sow wheat or linseed in the bed; this appears the only means they have of raising a dry crop in the District. They sow their rice in three different ways: *Botá* is simple broadcast sowing; *kaurak*, is sowing broadcast in a prepared field, after steeping the unhusked rice in hot water, and then leaving it to germinate (this mode is only adopted when the sowing happens to be late); the third mode is called *noná*,—a nursery of young rice is first formed in a well-manured piece of ground, and the seedlings are then transplanted to a field prepared as for the *kaurak* sowing, being placed at intervals of about an inch from each other. Irrigation is resorted to and manure used only for the cultivation of rice, vegetables, sugar-cane, and betel. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 3161 proprietors, of whom 2044 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 20,216, of whom 8518 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 11,698 were tenants-at-will. In 1876, the average rent per acre of land suited for rice was 1s. 4d.; for wheat, 1s. 1d.; for inferior grain, 1s. 3d.: the average produce per acre being, rice, 378 lbs.; wheat, 318 lbs.; and inferior grain, 520 lbs. Rice sold for 6s. 1d. per cwt., and wheat for 3s. 2d. per cwt. In the same year wages averaged for skilled labour 1s. 3d. per diem, for unskilled labour 4½d. per diem, being 2d. or 3d. higher than the rates of four years earlier. Carts, with which Bhandára is particularly well stocked, may be hired at 1s. 3d. a day. Besides its crops, the District yields jungle produce of some value, especially gums and honey, the gathering of which is almost entirely in the hands of the Gonds. The timber is of little worth, as the trees rarely attain a large size.

Natural Calamities.—Comparing the Census of 1872 with that of 1866, Bhandára shows a loss of 43,667 persons. That this decrease may be in part attributed to the famine of 1869, which fell with great severity on this District, cannot be doubted; but happily other and less

painful causes can also be assigned. During this period a large emigration of Koshtís to Berar has taken place, where they have obtained employment as day-labourers, finding labour more remunerative, and food less dear, than in their own villages. The opening up of the new District of Bálághát has also no doubt induced many to settle there.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Cloth, and brass, and potstone wares constitute the chief manufactures of the District. Pauni produces cloth of singularly fine quality. A turban of the best sort made to order will sometimes fetch £20. The original makers of these magnificent cloths are said to have come to these parts on the invitation of the Rájá of Nágpur at the beginning of this century, from Paithan on the Godávari, and from Burhánpur on the Tápti. They now bear the name of Koshtís. Of late years, the competition of English piece-goods and the rise in the value of cotton have diminished the price of the inferior kinds of cloth; but the export trade from this town to Nágpur, Poona, and Bombay is still considerable, its value amounting in 1869 to £5037. Pauni also produces brass-ware, but Bhandára is the most important seat of this manufacture, sending its exports to Nágpur, Ráipur, and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). The potstone-wares consist of cups, plates, and pipe-bowls, made chiefly at Kanheri and Pendri. Cotton, dyes, and salt from Berar, wheat and rice from Ráipur, English piece-goods from Bombay and Mirzápur, silk from Burhánpur, and cattle from Seoni and Mandla Districts, form the chief imports. The direction of the trade is chiefly—to and from Nágpur and Ráipur by the Great Eastern Road, which enters the District on the west, and, passing through Bhandára, crosses the river Bágh by a substantial bridge into Ráipur District;—and partly by a route through Palándúr; to and from Kámthi (Kamptee) by the Tumsár route; and towards Mandla by Hatta and Kámtha. In 1877 there were 58 miles of made roads. Small country carts and pack-bullocks supply the means of carrying on the existing traffic. The rocky barriers in the bed of the Wáinganga at Chichgáon, and in the bed of the Bágh at Satoná, limit the water communication during the rains to the interior of the District. The boats employed on these rivers consist of large logs of teak scooped out and lashed together.

Administration.—In 1854, Bhandára was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Revenue in 1868-69—Land revenue, £40,894; stamps, £3775; excise, £5592; assessed taxes, £5051; and forests, £2553. The settlement of land revenue for the District was concluded in 1867, and the low rate at which it was fixed has greatly encouraged cultivation. The payment is made by two instalments, in April and January.

In 1876-77, the total revenue amounted to £57,526, of which the land revenue yielded £40,681. Under the Marhattá reign, there were no established courts of law, but the *pátels* administered justice according to their own idea of what was right. In succession cases, the nationality determined the law to be followed. Suits exceeding £100 in value, however, generally came before the Rájá. Both plaintiff and defendant paid to the Government a fee of one-fourth. Among the lower classes the heads of castes, styled *setyás*, and on appeal an assembly of *setyás*, decided civil cases. The plaintiff provided victuals and tobacco, or if a Gond, liquor, for the court; and an image of Mahádeva set upon a platform gave the sanctity of an oath to any statement there made. Thieves and burglars were punished by confiscation of goods, imprisonment in irons, or detention in the stocks. Second offences incurred mutilation of hands, nose, and fingers. Women who murdered their husbands generally had their noses mutilated. In 1876-77, the total cost of District officials and police of all kinds amounted to £11,236. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 7—magistrates, 7; maximum distance of any village from the nearest court, 56—average distance, 30 miles; number of police, 422, costing £5698, being 1 policeman to about every 9 square miles and to 1338 inhabitants. In 1876, the daily average number of convicts in jail was 65·52, of whom 7 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £675. Unpolished as they are, the inhabitants of Bhandára have shown themselves more than usually sensible of the value of education. Twenty-eight private schools in the large towns and 27 in the villages supplied instruction,the teachers being Bráhmans or Vidúrs, the illegitimate descendants of Bráhmans, either in the Persian or the Marhattí language. In some cases, these old town and village schools served as foundations for the existing institutions on the introduction of the present system of education. In 1876, the Government or aided schools under Government inspection, all of which have been established since 1864, numbered 57, attended by 3319 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—In 1871, the rainfall at the civil station was 55·97 inches; in 1876, it amounted only to 38·15 inches. In the latter year the temperature in the shade was thus recorded :—May, highest reading 100° F., lowest 73° F.; July, highest reading 98° F., lowest 72° F.; December, highest reading 89° F., lowest 49° F. The most deadly disease is fever, which prevails throughout the year, but proves most fatal during the months of September, October, and November. Nearly 80 per cent. of the deaths must be attributed to this cause. Bowel complaints carry off large numbers, and small-pox, owing to the little progress as yet made by vaccination, commits great ravages, more especially during the months of April, May, and June. In 1876, the death-rate

from all causes was 27·17 per 1000 of the population; for the previous five years it had only averaged 17·03. Two charitable dispensaries at Bhandára and Kámtha afforded medical relief in 1876 to 6805 in-door and out-door patients.

Bhandára.—*Tahsíl* in the District of the same name, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 38′ 30″ and 21° 28′ 15″ N. lat., and between 79° 31′ 45″ and 79° 57′ 15″ E. long.; pop. (1872), 148,089; area, 786 square miles, of which 396 were cultivated and 147 returned as cultivable; land revenue, £15,045; total revenue, £15,762; rent paid by cultivators, £20,245.

Bhandára.—Headquarters of the District of the same name, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 9′ 22″ N., long. 79° 41′ 43″ E.; pop. (1877), 11,433, mostly Dhers, Koshtís, and Kásárs, with a few Muhammadans and Bráhmans. Situated on the Wáinganga river, close to the Great Eastern Road, the town does a good trade in the hardware it manufactures, and in cotton cloth. Built entirely on red gravel, it is dry and healthy, but depends for its water on wells and tanks outside. Bhandára has a District court, post office, Government dispensary, jail, police headquarters, travellers' bungalow, assistant engineer's office, public library, and Government *zilá* school; also a girls' school, and two indigenous schools for Marhattí, and for Persian and Urdu.

Bhandaria.—One of the petty States of Undsarviyá in Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of one village, with four independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £480; a tribute of £31 is paid to the Gáekwár.

Bhánder.—Ancient town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 43′ 30″ N., long. 78° 47′ 55″ E. On the left bank of the Pahúj river, distant 24 miles from Jhánsi. Area, 209 acres; pop. (1872), 5929 souls, comprising 5141 Hindus and 788 Musalmáns. Stands in the midst of picturesque rocky scenery, and spreads over the side of a hill into the plain beneath. West of the town, a large lake-like tank has been formed by throwing a dam across the bed of a stream flowing into the Pahúj. On the hill above, remains of tanks, wells, and temples, apparently mark the ancient site of a Buddhist monastery; carved granite stones of like origin do service in the town as door-steps or pillars. The principal mosque, built during the reign of Aurangzeb, consists in large part of Buddhist columns. Trade and population declining under pressure of cholera and famine, which have caused emigration to more favoured tracts. The town contains many ruined or vacant houses. Manufacture of *kharua* cloth, exported to Mau (Mhow), Gwalior, and Kálpi; also of white blankets. Police station, post office, school, grain market, considerable *bázár sarái*, dispensary. Berauli, 3 miles south-east, has a perfect temple of ancient date still unmutilated.

Bhandeswar.—Hill in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; a bare rock shooting up abruptly from a wild, uninhabited tract to an elevation of 1759 feet above sea level. The hill is very difficult of ascent, and is crowned by a perpendicular rock 20 feet in height. There are several smaller peaked hills of the same character in the neighbourhood.

Bhándup.—Seaport in Tanna District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 8′ 45″ N., long. 72° 59′ 15″ E.; average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £286; imports, £230.

Bhángá.—Trading village in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the Kumár river. Chief imports—rice, paddy, salt, mustard, and piece-goods; principal exports—jute, molasses, and sugar. Lat. 23° 23′ 35″ N., long. 90° 1′ 20″ E.; estimated population in 1870, 1000.

Bhangarhát.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the Bhángar Canal. Lat. 22° 31′ N., long. 88° 39′ E. Large market frequented by boatmen, and the scene of an annual Muhammadan fair.

Bhangha.—Town in Bahráich District, Oudh; 20 miles north-east of Bahráich, and 7 north-west of Bhinga. Prettily situated in the rich *doáb* between the Rápti and Bhakla rivers, in the midst of mango groves. Pop. (1869), 2149 Hindus, and 605 Muhammadans—total, 2754. Government school.

Bhangoda.—One of the *muttás* of the Bissemkatak Estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras; consisting of 32 villages, inhabited by Khonds. Formerly proscribed by the officers of the Meriah Agency as addicted to human sacrifice.—*See* BISSEMKATAK.

Bhan-gún (*Bhan-goon*).—Revenue circle in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 24 square miles, of which 16 are uncultivable; pop. (1876), 2716, all Burmese. Chief products—rice, sesamum, cotton, maize, plantains, chillies, cutch, and silk. Bhan-gún was transferred from Kama township to Thayet in 1859. Gross revenue (1876-77), £474.

Bhan-law.—Revenue circle in Mergui District, Tenasserim, British Burma. It occupies the valley of the river Tenasserim above its junction with the Little Tenasserim. Land revenue (1876-77), £152; capitation tax, £135; pop. (1876), 1997.

Bhan-oung.—Revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim, British Burma; on the right bank of the Tsittoung river. Pop. (1876), 4135, principally Toungya cultivators or gardeners. To the north is the Tsíloung Lake, which is 5 feet deep in dry weather, and 8 feet in the rains. Chief crop, rice. Gross revenue (1876-77), £413.

Bhánpura.—Town in Indore State, Central India; situated on the Rewa, at the base of a ridge of hills (lat. 24° 30′ 45″ N., long. 75° 47′ 30″ E.) on the route from Neemuch (Nímach) to Kotah, 60 miles east of former, 60 miles south of latter; elevation above sea, 1344 feet;

estimated pop. 20,000. The town is surrounded by a wall, and has an unfinished stone fort and fine palace.

Bhánrer.—Hill range in Jubbulpore (Jabalpur) District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 9′ and 24° 17′ N. lat., and between 79° 25′ and 80° 46′ E. long., and forming the south-eastern face of the Vindhya hill system. Starting opposite Sankalghát, on the Nerbudda (Narbadá) in Narsinghpur District, it runs in a north-easterly direction for 120 miles; its last section bounding the Maihír valley. Highest peak, Kalumbe or Kalumar, 2544 feet above sea level.

Baráwán.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 14 miles north-east of Sandíla. Pop. (1869), 3193, chiefly Bráhmans, living in 684 houses. Village school.

Bharejda.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £246; a tribute of £9 is payable to the British Government.

Bhárgaví.—River in Purí District, Bengal; a branch of the KOYÁKHAI, one of the distributaries of the MAHANADI. Leaving the Koyákhái near Sadáipur village, it flows in a southerly direction until it reaches a point 6 or 7 miles from the coast, when it turns abruptly to the west, and empties itself into the CHILKA LAKE. It is navigable throughout the rains, when, like the other rivers of Orissa, it frequently overflows its banks, flooding a large portion of the neighbouring country.

Bharthna.—Central *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces; comprising a narrow strip of territory running from north to south, and including part of the Doáb uplands, the Jumna valley, and the wild ravine-clad region along the banks of the Chambal and the Kuári *nadí*. Intersected by Etáwah Branch Canal and East Indian Railway. Area, 416 square miles, of which 212 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 148,922; land revenue, £27,813; total revenue, £29,473; rental paid by cultivators, £47,927; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0½d.

Bhartpur (*Bharatpur*).—State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India; lying between 26° 43′ and 27° 50′ N. lat., and between 76° 53′ and 77° 48′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by the British District of Gurgáon; on the east by Muttra and Agra; on the south and south-west by Dholpur, Karauli (Kerowlee), and Jáipur (Jeypore); and on the west by Alwar (Ulwur). It is about 77 miles in length from north to south, and 50 miles in breadth; area, 1974 square miles. The northern part of the territory appears to be considerably depressed, so as to form an extensive, irregular, and shallow basin receiving torrents from Alwar (Ulwur), terminating in the *jhíls* or small lakes of Díg (Deeg) and its vicinity. The rivers flowing through the State are the Utanghan, th

Gambhir, the Kakand, and the Ruparel. The population of the State was estimated in 1875 at 743,710, or 376·74 per square mile; of these 630,242 are Hindus, and 113,445 Muhammadans. The principal castes are Játs, Gujars, Bráhmans, Banias, and Meos. The country is popularly known as Brij, or the land of Krishna, and the language, Brij-basha, is a village patois. Bhartpur is the only Ját principality of any magnitude in India, and perhaps the only State in which a great proportion of the people belong to the same race as the nobles and princes. The chief towns are BHARTPUR, DIG, Káman, Khambar, Rúpas. The town of Díg is noted for the *banwans* or palaces built by Suráj, which are justly celebrated for their elegance of design and perfection of workmanship. The fort, built by Budan Sinh, has been more than once besieged and taken; near it are the ruins of another fortress, apparently of older date. The town of Káman, on the north-east frontier, originally belonged to Jáipur, and was greatly enlarged by Rájá Kám Sen, from whom it derives its name. It contains many ruins, among which is a curious temple, with 84 pillars, on which the figure of Buddha is carved. Káman is considered sacred, Krishna having resided there. It was one of the places ceded to Mahárájá Ranjit Sinh by General Perron in 1782. The town of Khambar is on the high road to Díg, 9 miles distant from the capital. It was founded at the beginning of last century by the chief of Jáipur, and is a small city situated in a plain, and surrounded by a mud wall and ditch. It has a large palace built by Budan Sinh, which, although in a good state of preservation, is now infested by bats, and never used as a place of residence. Rúpas was founded by Rúp Sinh, a descendant of the Rájás of Chittorgarh, who became a Muhammadan, and was a constant attendant at the court of the Emperor Akbar. He built a palace in the Mughal style of architecture, with a large tank attached, both of which are still in existence. There are in the vicinity three colossal Pandaon images of Baldeojí, his wife, and Yudisthara; two enormous monolith columns or obelisks, the inscriptions on which are nearly defaced; and another colossal image, supposed to represent a Buddhist or Jain divinity. In addition to these places the following are worthy of notice:—Weir, founded by Budan Sinh more than 100 years ago; Khanwá, founded soon after the early Muhammadan conquests by Khán Muhammad Pathán, famous for a great battle fought by Bábar with Ráná Sanga of Udáipur (Oodeypore) in 1526, when the supremacy of Upper India passed into the hands of the Moslem invaders. Bayána is a place of considerable antiquity, with many ruins. Its fort, built on a range of hills, was once esteemed one of the chief strongholds in India, and the bulwark of Jadun dominion; it contains a high pillar of stone, the inscription on which has not yet been deciphered. It was held by the Jadun Rájá Bijái Pál, and was taken (A.D. 1004) by Sayyid Sálar Masáúd,

a nephew of the great Moslem conqueror, Mahmúd of Ghazni. There are numerous graves of Muhammadan fanatics, who perished here on the occasion known as 'Abu Khandar' (or more correctly, 'Abu Bakr Kandahárí'), a name having reference probably either to the great number of Afgháns who fell during the siege, or to the name and nationality of their leader. It is a spot of great sanctity in the eyes of Muhammadans, who declare that if a few more of the followers of the Prophet had received the crown of martyrdom here, the place would have superseded the title for veneration and pilgrimage held by Mecca.

History.—Probably the first authentic information respecting the remote ancestors of the present possessor of Bhártpur is to be found in Ferishta, who states that in 1026 a horde of Játs molested Mahmúd of Ghazní on his return from Guzerat (Gujarát), and were nearly exterminated by him. In 1397, Tamerlane, marching towards Delhi, fell in with and massacred a horde of the same race, who were even then noted freebooters. In 1526, the army of Bábar was harassed by them on his march through the Punjab. During the prosperity of the Mughal empire, the turbulence of their character brought upon them more than once the imperial wrath. The decline of the Mughal power, and the anarchy which followed the death of Aurangzeb, gave full scope for the play of their hardy and daring character. Under their chief, Chúránam, they erected petty castles in the villages, the lands of which they cultivated. Chúránam was dispossessed by his brother Badan Sinh, who was installed as Rájá at Díg. Under the son of Badan Sinh, Suráj Mall, the territory of the rising State was considerably extended. He was in favour with the Rájá of Jáipur, and held the forts of Díg and Khambar. Bhartpur is first mentioned as a place of great strength about this time (1730). In 1754, Suráj Mall baffled the allied forces of the Wazír, Ghází-ud-dín, the Marhattás, and the Rájá of Jáipur, though in the end he compounded with them by the payment of £70,000. Six years later, he joined, at the head of 30,000 men, the great Marhattá confederacy, which, under Seodasco Bháo, marched to Delhi to oppose Ahmad Sháh Duráni in his invasion of Hindustán; but the incompetence of the Marhattá leader was so patent, and his insolence so galling to Suráj Mall, that he withdrew from the confederacy, and thus escaped the carnage of the defeat at Pánipat. It was during the confusion resulting from this battle that Suráj Mall obtained possession of Agra, by bribing the commander of the garrison. He was surprised and killed in 1763, leaving five sons, three of whom administered the State of Bhartpur in succession. During the reign of the third, Námal Sinh, the fourth son, Ranjít Sinh, rebelled, and called to his aid Najaf Khán, who was nominally the commander-in-chief of the army of Delhi, but in reality

an independent potentate. Najaf Khán obtained possession of Agra, but being called away into Rohilkhand, Námal Sinh took advantage of his absence to carry the war into the enemy's country. On Najaf Khán's return, accompanied by Ranjít Sinh, the State and fortress of Bhurtpur were taken; but all the territory was seized by Najaf Khán, except the fortress of Bhartpur, held by Ranjít Sinh, and land valued at nine *lákhs* of rupees, which was restored to the latter on the intercession of his mother. On Najaf Khán's death, Sindhia seized all the country, including Bhartpur; but again Ranjít's mother interceded, and Sindhia restored to him 11 *parganás*, to which 3 more were subsequently added for services rendered to General Perron. These fourteen *parganás* now form the State of Bhartpur. Ranjít Sinh was one of the first of the chieftains of Hindustán to connect his interests with those of the British Government. At the commencement of the Marhattá war, in 1803, a treaty was concluded with him by the British Government, as a consequence of which Lord Lake was joined by a Bhartpur contingent of horse, which did good service at the battle of Laswárí (Laswaree), and throughout the campaign against Sindhia. For these services the British Government transferred to Bhartpur 5 Districts, yielding 7 *lákhs* of rupees. But when war broke out with Holkár, the Rájá of Bhartpur first attempted evasion and then refused to send his contingent; and when the routed troops of Holkár were pursued to the glacis of Díg, a destructive artillery fire was opened from the ramparts on the British troops. Thereupon Lord Lake attacked Díg, and carried it by assault. Bhartpur was then invested on the 7th January 1805. The town was 8 miles in circumference, surrounded by a mud wall of great height and thickness, protected by numerous bastions, and a broad and deep moat filled with water. The garrison was estimated at 8000 men; and the artillery at hand for employment in breaching bore no proportion to the defensive strength of the works. Four successive assaults were repulsed; and finally the British army, with a loss of 388 killed and 1894 wounded, was compelled to withdraw. Though victorious, the Rájá was evidently alarmed at the pertinacity of the assailants, and his success was followed by overtures for peace. Ranjít Sinh surrendered the fort, and agreed to expel Holkár from his territories. By this treaty, the five Districts conferred on him in 1803 were resumed, and he agreed to pay an indemnity of 20 *lákhs* of rupees (say £200,000), seven of which were subsequently remitted.

Ranjít Sinh died in 1805, leaving four sons. The eldest, Randhir Sinh, ruled for eighteen years; the second, Baldeo Sinh, succeeded, but only ruled eighteen months. Balwant Sinh was now the rightful heir; but his cousin, Dúrjan Sál, grandson of Ranjít Sinh, seized the fortress of Bhartpur and imprisoned the heir in 1826. An army of 25,000 men,

well provided with artillery, led by Lord Combermere, marched against Bhartpur. Notwithstanding the large force of artillery, the strength and thickness of the walls offered such resistance to the breaching batteries that it became necessary to resort to mining. The mines were commenced on December 23d, and sprung on the 17th January following, when a sufficient breach was effected, and the fortress carried by assault on the 18th. Dúrjan Sál was made prisoner; Balwant Sinh, then an infant, was placed in power, his mother acting as regent, and a political agent superintending affairs. In 1835, Balwant Sinh was put in charge of the administration, and died in 1853, being succeeded by his only son the present Máhárájá, Jaswant Sinh, who was born in 1850. The Rájá's title is Brijindár Sawái. During his minority the administration was carried on by a political agent and council of seven Sardárs. The government was made over to him when he attained the age of twenty.

Administration.—The revenue of the State in 1874 was about £320,000. No tribute is paid, nor any contributions to local contingents. A mint is kept up, at which both silver and copper are coined. There is a central school at the capital, where English, Persian, Sanskrit, and Arabic are taught. There are also 12 *tahsílí* and 181 *halkabandí* (indigenous) schools, which teach the rudiments of Urdu and Hindi. The number of dispensaries is 13, besides a large hospital at the capital, all supervised by the Agency Surgeon. There is a central jail at Bhartpur, and two smaller ones. A telegraph office and post office exist in the capital. The latter building is close to the Rájputána State Railway Station, which lies to the north-west of the city. This line, connecting Agra with Jáipur (Jeypore), Ajmere, etc., is constructed on the metre gauge system, and passes through the State from Ikran in the east to Kherli in the west, a distance of about 40 miles. The total military strength of the State amounts to 10,210 men of all arms, of whom 1460 are cavalry, 8500 infantry, and 250 artillery. There are 38 cannon, unserviceable as field guns, but sufficient for purposes of ceremony.

Bhartpur (*Bharatpur*).—Chief town and fortress of Bhartpur State, Central India; situated on the high road between Agra and Ajmere, and on the Rájputána State Railway, 35 miles from Agra and 112 from Jáipur (Jeypore). Lat. 27° 13′ 5″ N., long. 77° 32′ 20″ E. Height above sea level, 577 feet; pop. (1877), 61,448. The forts and ramparts as they now stand were constructed in 1733 by Budan Sinh. The town is named after Bharat, a legendary character of great fame in Hindu mythology, and is considered to be under the tutelary influence of Krishna, who is worshipped here under the name of Bihári. The fortress has played a prominent part in the history of the State; account of the sieges by Lord Lake in 1805, and Lord Combermere

1827, will be found in the article on BHARTPUR STATE (*vide supra*). The town contains a large hospital, a central jail, and a telegraph and post office.

Bhárúdpura.—Petty State in the Deputy Bhíl (Bheel) Agency, in Central India. The chief, who is styled Bhumiá, and named Udái Sinh, holds 3 villages, for which he pays £33 annually to the Dhar State; besides the village of Kankurípura, in Mandú, which he holds in perpetuity, paying £4 per annum.

Bhatgáon.—Chiefship in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; south of the Mahánadi. Lat. 21° 39′ 30″ N., long. 82° 51′ E.; pop. (1870), 7904, living in 39 villages; area, 62 square miles, of which about 17 are cultivated and about 19 cultivable. The *zamíndár* is a Bijiá by caste.

Bhátgáon.—One of the chief towns of Nepál, and the favourite residence of the Bráhmans of the country. Lat. 27° 37′ N., long. 85° 22′ E. Well kept, and has some fine buildings.

Bhátí.—The name given by the Muhammadan historians to the coast-strip of the SUNDARBANS from Hijili to the Meghná. Lat. 20° 30′ to 22° 30′ N., long. 88° to 91° 14′ E. The name means 'lowlands overflowed by the tide,' and is still applied to the Sundarban tracts of Jessor and Bákarganj Districts, Bengal.

Bhátíbárí.—One of the WESTERN DWARS of Bhután. Area in 1870, 149 square miles; number of 'enclosures,' 458; number of houses, 824; pop. (1870), 5874, of whom 3068 were males and 2806 females; average density of population, 39 per square mile; number of houses per square mile, 5·53; persons per 'enclosure,' 12·82; persons per house, 7·13. Of the total area of 95,125 acres, 85,868 are uncultivated and 9257 cultivated.

Bhátípur.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision in Faizábád (Fyzabad) District, Oudh. Pop. (1869), 307,696 Hindus, 21,543 Muhammadans and others —total, 329,239; area (1869), 532 square miles, or 340,503 acres—193,896 cultivated, 63,837 cultivable but not under tillage; land revenue (1868-69), £29,246; average assessment on total area, 1s. 8⅝d. per acre—on assessed area, 2s. 3¼d. per acre—on cultivated area, 3s. 0¼d. per acre.

Bhatkal.—Seaport in North Kanara District, Bombay. Lat. 13° 59′ N., long. 74° 34′ 40″ E. Within a mile and a half of the mouth of a small stream that falls into the Arabian Sea, about 64 miles south-east of Karwar. Pop. (1872), 5246, the majority of whom are Musalmáns. There are 2 small and 2 large mosques, and the Musalmán population has the special name Nawáyat, said to mean 'newly arrived,' owing to their being Sunni Persians, driven from the neighbourhood of Bagdad by the persecution of their Shiá brethren about 500 or 600 years ago. Many of these Nawáyats are wealthy traders, and visit different parts of

the country for trading purposes, leaving their families at Bhatkal. There is a post office.

From the 14th to the 16th century, under the names of Baticala (Jordanus, 1321), Battecala (Barbosa, 1510), and Baticala (De Barros), Bhatkal was a flourishing centre of trade, where merchants from Ormuz and Goa came to load sugar and rice. In 1505, the Portuguese established a factory at Batticolo, but a few years later the capture of Goa (1511) deprived the place of its importance. Two attempts were made by the British to establish an agency at Bhatkal—the first in 1638 by a country association, the second in 1668 by the regular company, but both failed. According to Captain Hamilton (1690-1720), the remains of a large city were still to be seen in the beginning of the 18th century. Average annual value of sea-borne trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £4270; imports, £6197.

Bhátkuli.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar; 10 miles from Amráoti town. Pop. (1867), 2133.

Bhatnair.—Town and fort in the north of Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State, on the left bank of the Goghar river, now dried up. Lat. 29° 34′ 55″ N., long. 74° 20′ 45″ E. Captain Powlett, in his *Gazetteer of the Bickaneer State*, says: 'The Bhatnair fort has attained historical celebrity from its position on the direct route of invasion from Central Asia to India. I am informed by Mr. Oliver, late Deputy Commissioner of Sírsa, that Bhatnair, Abor, Bhatindá, and Sírsa, situated at the angles of a nearly square figure with a side about 50 miles long, each had a fort on the same plan and of the same dimensions, and thus formed a "quadrilateral" in the path of any invader from the north-west.' The *Tórikh Hind* speaks of Bhatnair having been taken by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1001; and Tod says that it was attacked by Timúr. It seems probable that Timúr left a Tartar Chagitai noble in charge, who was expelled by Bhattis from Márot and Phulra; but whether the place took its name originally from them, or from one Rájá Bharat, is much disputed. General Cunningham states that Bhatnair was taken by Khetsi Kondhalat in 1527 A.D. from Sada Cháyal Rájput, of which clan no mention is made by Tod. In 1549 A.D., Mirzá Kamran, brother of Húmáyun, took the fort by assault, on which occasion Khetsi, with 5000 Rájputs, was slain, although Kamran was subsequently defeated by Ráo Jetsa of Bíkaner (Bickaneer). Firoz Cháyal had meanwhile recovered the fort, and the Ráo therefore sent his son, Thákur Sí, to retake it. This was done by surprise and sudden assault. In Samvat 1816 or 1817, the fort was taken by Hassan Muhammad, a Bhatti leader, but was again retaken. In Samvat 1861, it was beleaguered by a Bíkaner (Bickaneer) force; and after a close investment and siege, lasting more than five months, the place was taken. In 1800 A.D., it was attacked by the adventurer

George Thomas, to whom it capitulated after the ramparts had been breached. He did not hold it long, however, and it eventually reverted to the State of Bíkaner.

Bhátpur.—Village in Hardoi District, Oudh; on the right bank of the Gumti, 20 miles east-north-east of Sandíla, and 6 south of Bári. Pop. (1869), 2504, chiefly of the Báis caste.

Bhattiána.—Tract of country in the Punjab, now forming part of HISSAR and SIRSA Districts. Derived its name from the Bhattis, a wild Rájput clan, who held the country lying between Hariána, Bickaneer, and Baháwalpur. Skirts the borders of the great sandy desert, and at present contains a small and scattered population; but numerous ruins of towns, villages, and wells prove that the tract once supported a thriving people. The Ghaggar, now checked in its course by ill-constructed irrigation dams, formerly watered these sandy flats, and finally joined the Sutlej near Baháwalpur. At the close of the last century the tract, then utterly deserted, fell into the hands of the Bhattis, a band of pastoral nomads and robbers, who planted a few fortified villages in the midst of the waste, as places of refuge on the approach of danger. In 1795, George Thomas, the adventurer of Hariána, extended his influence over the Bhatti chiefs, who paid him at least a nominal allegiance. After the victories of Lord Lake in 1803, Bhattiána passed with the rest of the Delhi territory under British rule; but no practical steps were taken to secure this outlying possession until 1810. A military force was then despatched against two Bhatti chieftains, Bahádur Khán and Zabta Khán, who had proclaimed their independence. Bahádur Khán was overpowered and expelled the country; but Zabta Khán swore fealty to the British Government, and secured possession of his territory for the time. In 1818, however, he connived at certain attacks made against Fatehabad within British limits; and a second force was sent to expel him and confiscate his estates. After protracted boundary disputes with the Síkh States, a District of Bhattiána was formed in 1835; but it was afterwards divided between SIRSA and HISSAR, under which headings further information will be found. The present inhabitants are mostly the descendants of colonists from the Síkh States, who settled in Bhattiána since the beginning of this century.

Bháturiá.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 26′ N., long. 88° 20′ E.

Bhaunagar (*Bhávanagar*).—Native State within the British Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay, lying between 20° 56′ 30″ and 22° 16′ 30″ N. lat., and between 71° 16′ and 72° 20′ 45″ E. long; area, 2784 square miles; estimated population in 1875, 403,754, distributed among 542 villages, and consisting chiefly of Hindus of the Vaishnav, Sumast, and Jain sects, and Muhammadans; gross

revenue, £273,119. Over about one-half the area the soil is the *regar* or black cotton earth, the remainder is light and sandy. Water is obtained from wells and rivers. The climate on the sea-coast is good, but inland it is hot and dry. The most common disease is fever. Products, grain and cotton; manufactures, oil and cloth. The quantity of cotton produced is very considerable, and forms one of the chief sources of wealth of the State. The State does not levy transit dues. A road has been constructed from Bhaunagar to Vartej and Gogo, and another from Dharuká to Dasá.

The Thákur Sáhib of Bhaunagar, named Takht Sinhji, was born about 1858. He is a Gohel Rájput, and was educated at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. During his minority, the administration has been conducted by joint administrators—one a British officer, the other the old Minister of the State. The Thákur is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

The tribe of Gohel Rájputs are said to have settled in the country about the year 1200 A.D. under their chief Sejek, from whose three sons Ránojí, Sarunjí, and Sháhjí, are descended respectively the chiefs of Bhaunagar, Láthi, and Pálitána. The Wala State also is an offshoot from Bhaunagar. The town of Bhaunagar was founded in 1742 by Bhau Sinh, grandfather of Wakat Sinh, who succeeded to the chieftaincy in 1772. Bhau Sinh, his son, Ráwal Akarájí, and his grandson Wakat Sinh, took great pains to improve the trade of their country, and to destroy the pirates who infested the neighbouring seas. A very intimate connection was thus formed between Bhaunagar and the Bombay Government. In 1759, the British Government acquired a right to a fourth share of the customs of the port of Bhaunagar from the Sidi of Surat, to whom it had been granted by Bhau Sinh as the price of protection from the enmity of the Nawáb of Cambay. In 1771, Ráwal Akarájí assisted the Bombay Government in reducing Tarraja and Mowa, which were occupied by piratical Kúlís. After the conquest of Tarraja, the fort was offered to Akarájí by the Bombay Government, but he refused to accept it, and it was in consequence made over to the Nawáb of Cambay. Wakat Sinh, however, after his accession, dispossessed the Nawáb of the fort, which, under an engagement arranged by the British Government in 1773, he was allowed to retain on paying a sum of £7500. The boundaries of the Bhaunagar State were largely increased by various other acquisitions made by Wakat Sinh previous to the settlement of Káthiáwár.

When Guzerat (Gujarát) and Káthiáwár were divided between the Peshwá and the Gáekwár, the western and larger portion of the Thákur's possessions were included in the Gáekwár's share, and the eastern and smaller portion, including Bhaunagar and the original estates of the family in Síhor (Sehore), fell to the Peshwá, and formed part of the Districts of Dhandhuka and Gogo, which the Peshwá ceded to the British Government

under the treaty of Bassein. At the time of the settlement of Káthiáwár, therefore, part of the Bhaunagar possessions had already become British territory, while part remained under the Gáekwár. The revenue demanded from the British portion was £1165, and that payable to the Gáekwár was fixed at £7450. But as it was expedient to consolidate in the hands of the British Government the various claims over Bhaunagar, an agreement was made, with the Thákur's consent, for the transfer of the Gáekwár's revenue in Bhaunagar to the British Government, which was accordingly included in the cessions made in 1807 by the Gáekwár for the support of a contingent force. In 1839, the British Government suppressed the mint at Bhaunagar, where copper money had been previously coined. As compensation for this, a sum of £280 a year was granted to the Thákur. A further sum of £400 was given to him in consideration of his resigning all claims to share in the land or sea customs of Gogo. The Thákur also subscribed the usual engagements, exempting from duty vessels putting into his port under stress of weather.

After the cession of Dhandhuka and Gogo, the chief of Bhaunagar was tacitly permitted to exercise the same powers as before in the portion of his estates which fell within these Districts. But in consequence of a serious abuse of power, his British estates were, in 1815, placed under the jurisdiction of the English courts. The Thákur never ceased to complain of this change, and to bring forward claims. Eventually, after full investigation, an agreement was concluded by which the Thákur's revenue in his British estates was fixed at £5200 in perpetuity. In 1866, certain villages in this portion of the State were removed from the jurisdiction of the revenue, civil, and criminal courts of the Bombay Presidency, and transferred to the supervision of the Political Agent in Káthiáwár. In 1873, the Bhaunagar State made an agreement with the British Government for the construction of a telegraph line between Bhaunagar and Dholera.

Bhaunagar ranks as a first-class Tributary State among the many petty States in Káthiáwár; its chief is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, and maintains a military force of 2765 men. He has powers of life and death over all except British subjects. A tribute is payable of £16,392, jointly to the British Government (£13,000), the Gáekwár, and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The chief has received a *sanad* authorizing adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There are 97 schools, with 5154 pupils.

Bhaunagar (*Bhávanagar*).—Port in the Gulf of Cambay, and chief town of the State of the same name in Káthiáwár, and the residence of the chief. Lat. 21° 45′ N., long. 72° 12′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 35,871. The town was founded in 1743, and rapidly rose to influence under a line of princes who encouraged commerce and suppressed the piratical

munities that infested the Gulf of Cambay. It has a good and harbour for shipping of light draught, and carries on an extensive e, being the principal market and harbour of export for cotton in hiáwár, and possesses a spinning and weaving mill, working 12,064 ndles in 1875, and several steam presses. The export of cotton to mbay in 1874-75 was valued at £1,313,799.

Bhausinh.—Market village on the Bhágirathi river, in Bardwán strict, Bengal. Lat. 23° 36′ 24″ N., long. 88° 13′ 30″ E. Chief de—salt, jute, and cloth.

Bhaváni.—River of Madras. Rising in the Kunda group of the ilgiri Hills, it enters the low country in lat. 11° 9′ N., long. 76° 37′ E., nd after a winding course eastward, 105 miles in length, during which receives several affluents, the Moyár being the chief, it joins the Káveri (Cauvery) at the town of Bhaváni. The chief places on its banks are Mettapolliem (where it is crossed by a fine masonry bridge), Attani, Denkankótai, and Satyamangalam. Fish abound in the stream, but its water is not considered wholesome by the natives. The Bhaváni feeds many irrigation works, one channel alone watering lands assessed at £10,000 per annum.

Bhaváni.—*Táluk* in Coimbatore District, Madras. Houses, 22,412; pop. (1871), 102,813, being males 51,235, and females 51,578; Hindus, 100,503, viz. 72,918 Sivaites, 27,479 Vaishnavs, and 106 Lingáyats; Muhammadans, 928, being 898 Sunnis, 27 Shiás, and 3 'others'; Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics, 1382. Chief town, Bhaváni.

Bhaváni (*Bhaváni Kúdal*).—Town in the Bhaváni *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras; formerly feudatory to the Rájás of Madura. Lat. 11° 26′ N., long. 77° 44′ E.; pop. (1871), 6776, almost exclusively Hindus, 20 per cent. being Bráhmans; houses, 1346. Situated at the junction of the Bhaváni and Káveri (Cauvery) rivers, 9 miles north of Erode railway station. Once the chief town of the District, now only a post town and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Both the Káveri (Cauvery) and Bhaváni are here crossed by fine masonry bridges (the high road from Salem to Coimbatore passing over them), and the town consequently shares in the traffic on eight roads which converge here. These are the main roads to Salem, Coimbatore, Shenkeridrúg, and Satyamangalam; the Hassanúr *ghát*, and Burghur *ghát* roads, and the roads to Erode and Kondapádi. In November, many pilgrims assemble at the temple of Sungamma Eswara, built at the confluence (*sungamma*) o the rivers. The bridge over the Cauvery (Káveri) was complete in 1847, and immediately afterwards destroyed by the freshets. I was rebuilt with 26 spans at a cost of £4900, and again opened f traffic in 1851.

Bhaw.—River in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burm forming the boundary between Pú-gan-doung and Thanlyeng circl

After it leaves the network of channels occupying the central portion of Thanlyeng township, it flows westward through a fertile rice-producing country, and eventually joins the Pegu river a mile above Syriam. The Bhaw, at high tide, is navigable throughout its whole length.

Bháwál (or *Nágarí*).—Village in Dacca District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 59′ 35″ N., long. 90° 27′ 50″ E. In 1839, this and several neighbouring villages were the property of a Roman Catholic Mission, and Bháwál contained in that year about 500 houses, almost entirely inhabited by Christians of Portuguese descent.

Bháwan.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; 6 miles south-east of Rái Bareli town. Lat. 26° 26′ N., long. 81° 18′ E. Founded by a Bhar chief of the same name about 500 years ago. On the overthrow of the Bhar power, the town was made over to a Muhammadan chief, and a fort built, the remains of which now consist of unshapely mounds. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 790; Muhammadans, 311—total, 1101.

Bhawáni.—*Tahsíl* and town in Hissár District, Punjab. — *See* BHIWANI.

Bhawániganj.—Subdivision of Rangpur District, Bengal. Area (1872), 789 square miles; number of villages, 1236; number of houses, 74,552; pop. (1872), 431,746, comprising 297,145 Muhammadans, 134,222 Hindus, 13 Buddhists and Christians, and 366 'others'; number of males, 220,108; females, 211,638; average density of population, 547 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·57; houses per square mile, 94; persons per village, 349; persons per house, 5·8. The Subdivision was formed in 1857, and comprises the four *thánás* (police circles) of Bhawániganj, Chilmári, Sadullápur, and Gobindganj. In 1870-71 it contained 2 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police of 77 men, and a village watch of 1001.

Bhawánipur.—Suburb of Calcutta, with a central lunatic asylum for Europeans, several schools, a dispensary, etc. Lat. 21° 32′ N., long. 88° 23′ E. The native village is on Tolly's Canal. Some trade in firewood is carried on.

Bhawánipur.—Village in Sálbárí *parganá* (fiscal division), Dinájpur District, Bengal; 6 miles north of Ránísankáil police station, and 1 mile west of the river Kulik. Scene of the celebrated Nekmard fair held in honour of a *pír*, or Muhammadan saint, buried here. His tomb, in a mat hut in the middle of a mango grove, is visited during the six or seven days of the fair by about 100,000 persons from all parts of the country. The fair is opened on the first day of the Bengali year, corresponding to the 10th or 11th April. A great variety of articles is brought for sale. Oxen come from Purniah and the surrounding Districts, ponies from the Bhután Hills, horses from Kábul and the Behar Districts, elephants from the Dárjíling *tarái* and Assam,

d camels from the north-west. Mughals and Afgháns bring dried fruits, nbroidered saddlery, daggers, swords, looking-glasses, etc. Síkhs may e seen manufacturing combs out of ivory and sandal-wood. The hill ribes bring down blankets, woollen cloths, walnuts, musk, ponies, and *ák* tails. The Nepális sell *kukris* (heavy bill-hooks, the national veapon of the Gurkhás) and *chiretá* leaf. Quantities of real and imitaion coral beads are exposed for sale by the bankers of Dinájpur. Besides the above, there are English piece-goods, brass pots of all sorts and sizes, hookahs, etc. A limited supply of grain is also offered.

Bhawlay.—Revenue circle in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The greater part of the area consists of low-lying plains, intersected by numerous creeks, and subject to inundation twice annually; the central portion is wooded. In 1876 there were 5706 acres under rice, 112 left fallow, 187 of garden land, and 30 under miscellaneous cultivation. In the same year there were 1263 buffaloes, 107 cows, bulls, and bullocks, 118 carts, 244 ploughs, and 16 boats. Pop. (1876), 4822; gross revenue, £2499. This circle contains 25 villages, whose inhabitants are chiefly engaged in agriculture, fisheries, and as raftsmen.

Bhawmí (*Bhawmee*).—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 250 square miles; pop. (1876), 1406; gross revenue (1876-77), £201. A mountainous and densely wooded tract lying between the Arakan Mountains and the Bay of Bengal. Five miles north of the river Magyí, the southern boundary of the circle, there is a sandy beach fringed with hills and forests, coming close down to the water's edge; above the mouth of the Un (Oon) a rocky headland projects into the water, and thence the coast, as far as the Bhawmí river, is abrupt.

Bhawní (*Bhawnee*).—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 4738; area, 800 square miles. Lying on the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yoma Hills, and extending from Toung-ngú District on the north to Rangoon on the south. The country consists of a mass of hills covered with dense forest; in the east are a few patches of rice cultivation. Chief rivers, the Re-nwe and Bhienda. Raw silk is exported to Prome and Shwe-doung. Gross revenue (1876), £543. This circle was transferred from Toung-ngú to Shwe-gyeng District in 1866.

Bháyáwadar.—Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 51′ 15″ N., long. 70° 17′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 5563.

Bhedan (or *Basaikelá*).—Ancient Gond chiefship, now attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; about 30 miles south-south-west of Sambalpur town. Lat. 21° 12′ N., long. 83° 47′ 30″ E.; pop. (1866), 7115, chiefly agricultural, in 25 villages; area, 15 square miles, entirely cultivated. This chiefship is said to have existed before the Chauhán

Rájput dynasty arose 700 years ago. During the Mutiny, the chief joined the rebels under Surendra Sah, and was killed in action. The rest of the family surrendered under the amnesty. The chief village, Bhedan (pop. 1412), has an excellent school, with 140 pupils.

Bheel 'Agency.'—A collection of Native States in Central India.—*See* BHIL.

Bheeleng.—River, revenue circle, and town in Shwe-gyeng District, British Burma. *See* BHILENG.

Bheeleng-Kyaik-hto.—Township in Shwe-gyeng District, British Burma. *See* BHILENG-KYAIK-HTO.

Bheeloo-Gywon.—Island at the mouth of the Salwín River, Amherst District, British Burma. *See* BHILU-GYWON.

Bhenglaing.—River in Amherst District, Arakan Division, British Burma; formed by the junction of the Dúnthamie and Kyouk-tsarit, and falling into the Salwín in lat. 16° 45′ N. It flows between high and wooded banks, and is navigable throughout. Across its mouth, a sandbar has formed, impassable at low water. During the rains, it is used as the ordinary route between Maulmain and the river Tsittoung.

Bhenglaing.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Arakan Division, British Burma, lying in the angle at the confluence of the rivers Bhenglaing and Salwín. The only circle in the District in which tobacco is grown for export. Land revenue (1876), £243; capitation tax, £332; pop. (1876), 3265.

Bhera.—*Tahsíl* in Sháhpur District, Punjab; lying between 31° 54′ 50″ and 32° 35′ 45″ N. lat., and between 72° 45′ 45″ and 73° 25′ 15″ E. long.

Bhera.—Municipal town in Sháhpur District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 32° 29′ N., long. 72° 57′ E.; pop. (1868), 14,514, comprising 5495 Hindus, 8771 Muhammadans, and 248 Síkhs. It lies on the left bank of the river Jhelum (Jhilam), and is the largest and most thriving commercial town of the District. The original city lay on the left bank, and possessed considerable importance, as it purchased safety during Bábar's invasion by a present of 2 *lákhs* of rupees (£20,000), but was afterwards destroyed by hill tribes. The remaining ruins, known as Jobnáthnagar, are identified by General Cunningham with the capital of Sopheites, contemporary of Alexander the Great. The new town was founded about 1540, round the tomb of a Muhammadan saint. Centre of a *mahál* under Akbar; plundered and laid waste by Ahmad Sháh's general, Nur-ud-dín, in 1757; repopulated by the Síkh chieftains of the Bhangi confederacy; greatly improved under British rule. *Tahsíli* and police station, school, dispensary, town hall. Large trade in cotton during the American war, since somewhat declined. Exports of *ghí* and country cloth; flourishing manufacture of cotton cloth, *punkhas*, soap, coarse felt, and iron

ods; imports of rice, sugar, *gúr*, and European piece-goods. unicipal income in 1875-76, £844, or 1s. 1⅞d. per head of population 4,514) within municipal limits.

Bheragháṭ.—Village in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central rovinces, on the banks of the Narbadá (Nerbudda); remarkable for e scenery in its neighbourhood. The river winds in a crystal ream between perpendicular rocks of magnesian limestone, popurly known as the 'Marble Rocks,' 120 feet high, which appear to neet overhead, and in one part approach so closely that the natives call the pass the 'monkey's leap.' By moonlight, the views are specially fine, and the place is much visited by travellers. Indra is said to have made this channel for the waters of the pent-up stream, and the footprints left upon the rock by the elephant of the god, still receive adoration. On one of the conical hills in the neighbourhood stands a Hindu temple, commanding a magnificent prospect. Woods cover the hill except on one side, where steps lined with masonry lead to the shrine, which is surrounded by a circular cloister ornamented with sculptures of many of the Hindu gods, particularly of Siva. The Muhammadans have injured many of the images. According to tradition, the iconoclasts were a portion of Aurangzeb's army encamped near Sangrámpur. Some rude excavations in the neighbourhood once afforded a habitation to ascetics. A fair for religious purposes is held every November. Bheragháṭ and the 'Marble Rocks' may be best visited from Jabalpur, the village being situated about 9 miles south-west of that town. There is a *dák* bungalow (rest-house).

Bhet-rai.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in a valley between two subsidiary spurs of the Tazoung-gyí, and drained by a small tributary of the Kwon. The country is hilly, and covered with dense forests of *pyengma*, *pyeng-gado*, and other trees. Chief crop, rice. Gross revenue (1876-77), £1148; pop. (1876), 4622.

Bhidanwála.—Village in Sirhind, Punjab. Lat. 31° 10′ N., long. 75° E. Situated on the bank of a large offset of the Sutlej (Satlaj) issuing from that river a short distance below its junction with the Bea (Biás). Distant north-west from Calcutta 1167 miles.

Bhikorái.—Village in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 71° 50′ E. On the route from Pokhum to Balmer, 32 miles sou of the former. About 100 houses; population chiefly Chauhán Rájpu

Bhíl (*Bheel*).—A tract of country in Central India occupied by collection of Native States (known as the Bhíl Agency), under political superintendence of the Governor-General's Agent for Cen India. Surrounded on all sides by Native States of Central In principally those of Holkár and Sindhia. Consists chiefly of the hilly tracts of the Vindhyá range north of the Nerbudda river,

inhabited principally by Bhíls. The tract includes the following 13 States, together with certain outlying portions of Indore and Gwalior:—Dhar, Bakhtgarh, Jhabua, Ali Rajpur, Jobat, Katiwara, Ratanmal, Mathwar, Dahi, Nimkhera, Bara Barkhera, Chota Barkhera, and Kali Baori. Besides the above, there is another political agency in the same part of Central India, known as the Deputy Bhíl Agency, and comprising the following six States:—Barwani, Jamnia, Rajgarh, Kothide, Garhi, and Bharudpura. Both of these Agencies lie to the north of the Bombay Bhíl States in Khandesh, which are noticed under Dang States.

Bhiláni.—Government town in Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1450, viz. 700 Muhammadans, chiefly Sahátas, and 750 Hindus, principally Lohános. Founded prior to the 16th century. It adjoins the town of Halani.

Bhilauri.—Town in Satára District, Bombay; prettily situated on the left bank of the river Kistna (Krishna), facing the village of Akalkhop, 9 miles east of Tásgáon. Lat. 16° 59′ 30″ N., long. 74° 30′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 6227.

Bhíleng (*Bheeleng*).—River in the Pegu Division of British Burma. It rises in about the latitude of Kyouk-gyí among the mountains between the rivers Tsittoung and Salwín, and after a southerly course of 282 miles, falls into the Bay of Bengal eastward of the mouth of the Tsittoung. For many miles the Bhíleng is shallow with a rapid current. When it enters the plains of Shwe-gyeng the bed deepens, and after flowing past Yeng-ún and Bhíleng, and receiving the waters of numerous creeks, it becomes very tortuous, and finally spreads out into a bell mouth 2 miles broad, up which a 'bore' rushes with great velocity. This, in the dry season, is felt as far as Bhíleng town. During the rains the river overflows its banks, and deposits rich alluvial mud on the bordering plains. Those in the south-east, the Thein-tshiep and Tha-htún, are now protected by the Dúnwon and Kamathaing embankment, raised a few miles south of the Kyún-iep river, the southern boundary of Shwe-gyeng District. From May to September the portion of the course of the Bhíleng between the mouths of the Shwe-le creek and Kyún-iep river forms the main water-route from the Tsittoung to Maulmain.

Bhíleng (*Bheeleng*).—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Pegu Division, British Burma, lying between 16° 43′ and 17° 19′ N. lat., and between 97° 21′ and 97° 37′ E. long.; area, 220 square miles, or 140,800 acres, of which 5047 acres were under cultivation in 1875; pop. (1876), 8716. Situated on the right bank of the Bhíleng river, and including Bhíleng town. Gross revenue (1876-77), £1901, including the local revenue of Bhíleng.

Bhíleng (*Bheeleng*).—Town and headquarters of Bhíleng-Kyaik-hto

ship, Shwe-gyeng District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 4′ N., long. 97° 16′ E.; pop. (1877), 2074, chiefly Burmese traders. gularly built town, situated on the right bank of the river Bhíleng, court and circuit houses, police station, and a market. Uzana, ernor of Martaban, settled here with a number of Burmese followers 824, when retreating before the British arms, and was confirmed governor by the Burmese king. In 1830 he was murdered, and extent of territory under the governor's control was reduced. ring the second Burmese war, Bhíleng was surrendered to the itish. Soon afterwards an insurrection, headed by a Shan Thúgyi, oke out, and was suppressed by our troops. Since that time the wn has several times been attacked and plundered by robbers, nd has twice been burnt down and rebuilt. Local revenue (1876-77), £171.

Bhíleng-Kyaik-hto (*Bheeleng-Kyaik-hto*).—Township in Shwe-gyeng District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Headquarters at Bhíleng town. Pop. (1876) 40,625, chiefly Talaings and Burmese. Bounded north by the lower range of the Salwín Hill Tracts; south by the Bay of Bengal; east by the Bhíleng, its only river; and west by the Kadat stream. Bhíleng-Kyaik-hto consists of a wide alluvial plain, traversed by numerous streams draining the southern hill slopes, and admitting the full rush of the tide, which rises into a 'bore' in every channel, and sweeps up almost to the foot of the hills. The geological formation of the country shows that at no very remote period it was entirely covered by the sea. Local traditions, and the occasional discovery of large cables at Taik-kúla and other places inland, help to confirm this opinion. Chief crops, sugar-cane and vegetables. Porcelain clay found on the banks of the Bhíleng is mixed with other minerals brought by the Shans, who are chiefly engaged in this manufacture, from their States, and made into vessels of rude design. Gross revenue (1876), £8664.

Bhillang.—A feeder of the Bhágirathi river. Rises in lat. 30° 46′ N., long. 78° 55′ E., in Garhwál, Punjab, and flowing south-west for 50 miles, joins the Bhágirathi in lat. 30° 23′ N., long. 78° 31′ E. It is considered sacred by the Hindus, and abounds with fish called, by Moorcroft, 'trout.'

Bhilolpur.—Municipal town in Ludhiána District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 54′ N., long. 76° 21′ E.; pop. (1868), 3369. Only noticeable as being one of the oldest towns in the District. Municipal income in 1875-76, £113, or 8d. per head of population (3369) within municipal limits.

Bhiloria.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 5 square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £900, of which £242 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár. The chiefs are named Chánda Rái Sinhjí and Haríbáwa.

Bhílsa.—Town in Bhopál State, Central India; situated 26 miles north-east of Bhopál, in lat. 23° 31′ 35″ N., and long. 77° 50′ 39″ E. The town is perched on a rock, and has a fort enclosed by a castellated stone wall, and surrounded by a ditch. In the fort lies an old gun, 19½ feet in length, with a bore of 10 inches, said to have been made by order of the Emperor Jahángír. It is described as being of 'elegant proportions and highly ornamented; made of the finest brass, and cast with the appearance of a network over it, with large rings held by dolphins.' After changing hands several times, Bhílsa was finally, in 1570, incorporated with the empire of Delhi by Akbar. The place is now only noteworthy as giving its name to the remarkable and interesting series of Buddhist topes found in its neighbourhood. Mr. Fergusson describes this series as 'the most extensive, and, taking it altogether, perhaps the most interesting, group of topes in India,' and devotes half of his work on *Tree and Serpent Worship*, and 45 plates, besides woodcuts, to the illustration of the great tope at SANCHI. He thus describes (*History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, pp. 61 sqq.) the entire group:—

'There [near Bhílsa], within a district not exceeding ten miles east and west and six north and south, are five or six groups of topes, containing altogether between 25 and 30 individual examples. The principal of these, known as the Great Tope at Sánchi, has been frequently described; the smaller ones are known from General Cunningham's descriptions only (*Bhílsa Topes, or Buddhist Monuments in Central India*); but altogether they have excited so much attention that they are perhaps better known than any group in India. We are not, however, perhaps justified in assuming, from the greater extent of this group as now existing, that it possessed the same pre-eminence in Bhuddist times. If we could now see the topes that once adorned any of the great Buddhist sites in the Doáb or in Behar, the Bhílsa group might sink into insignificance. It may only be that, situated in a remote and thinly-peopled part of India, they have not been exposed to the destructive energy of opposing sects of the Hindu religion, and the bigoted Moslem has not wanted their materials for the erection of his mosques. They consequently remain to us, while it may be that nobler and more extensive groups of monuments have been swept from the face of the earth.' Little that is certain seems to be known regarding the object and history of the topes; but an examination of the largest of them at SANCHI shows that it is a *stupa* and not a *daghoba*—that is to say, a monument raised to mark some sacred spot, or to commemorate some event, and not a shrine containing a relic. There is no reason to suppose that any *stupas* were raised before Asoka's time (B.C. 250), so that the

earliest possible date of the Sánchi tope is fixed with some precision. Two of the smaller topes on the same platform (known as Nos. 2 and 3) contain relics of undoubted historical character, for a description of which the reader is referred to Mr. Fergusson's valuable work (*loc. cit.*).

'Besides the group at Sánchi,' continues that writer, 'which comprises six or seven topes, there are at Sonári, 6 miles distant, another group of eight topes. Two of these are important structures, enclosed in square courtyards; and one of them has yielded numerous relics to the explorer. At Sátdhára, 3 miles farther on, is a great tope 101 feet in diameter, which, like that at Sánchi, seems to have been a *stupa* and has yielded no relics. No. 2, however, though only 24 feet in diameter, was found to contain relics of Sariputra and Moggalana, like No. 3 at Sánchi. Besides these there are several others, all small and very much ruined. The most numerous group, however, is situated at Bhojpur, 7 miles from Sánchi, where 37 distinct topes are grouped together on various platforms. The largest is 66 feet in diameter; but No. 2 is described as one of the most perfect in the neighbourhood, and, like several others in this group, contained important relics. At Andhar, about 5 miles west of Bhojpur, is a fine group of three small but very interesting topes. With those above enumerated, this makes up about sixty distinct and separate topes in this small district, which certainly was not one of the most important in India in a religious point of view, and consequently was probably surpassed by many, not only in the number but in the splendour of its religious edifices.' Nothing certain is known as to the dates of the topes, but Mr. Fergusson assigns them to the three centuries and a half between 250 B.C. and the first century of our era.

Bhílú-Gywon (*Bheeloo-Gywon*).—An island lying in the mouth of the Salwín river, in Amherst District, British Burma; lying between 16° 15′ and 16° 31′ N. lat., and between 97° 30′ and 97° 39′ E. long.; pop. (1876), 24,141, or 225 per square mile; area, 107 square miles; length, 30 miles, stretching from Martaban to Amherst, of which District it forms a township. The western portion of the island, under the Burmese, constituted a separate township called Daray, formerly cut off from the rest of the island by the Tsaibala creek, whose northern end has now entirely silted up. The centre of the island from north to south is occupied by a range of wooded and pagoda-topped hills, sending out spurs which traverse the extensive alluvial plains to the east and west. The headquarters of Bhílú-Gywon are at Khyoung-tshún, situated in a dip of the hills in the centre of the island, where there is an artificial reservoir. Between Khyoung-tshún and the northern end of the island, in the Ka-hgnyaw Hills, is a hot saline spring, used in cases of rheumatism and skin diseases. The villages are generally large an

straggling; and owing to a Talaing prejudice against living in houses not facing the north, most of the dwellings look in that direction. The island is intersected by creeks, which enable its produce to be exported at little expense. The chief crop is rice. There are two roads in the island. Under the Burmese, this township, exclusive of Daray, was divided into twelve 'Rwa,' meaning in this instance tracts of country divided off for fiscal purposes, and each placed under a Thúgyí. After the cession of Tenasserim to the British, and the re-peopling of the township, the revenue divisions became tribal instead of territorial. In 1848, Captain (now Sir Arthur) Phayre, the Deputy Commissioner, fixed the boundaries of the circles, retaining as far as possible the limits of the ancient divisions. In certain cases, as when the reduction of a Thúgyí's office might be felt as a hardship, the Rwa was divided. Eighteen circles were thus formed, but the number was reduced in 1868 to 15, and in 1876 to 12.

Rice cultivation has very considerably increased. In 1848, the number of acres under tillage was 15,225; in 1858, it was 27,606; in 1868, 32,545; in 1873, 42,318; and in 1876, 41,274. There were 2340 more acres of rice land left fallow in 1876 than in 1873. Gross revenue (1876), £7886. Bhilú-gywon means, 'Caco-demon Island,' the name being derived from traditions of former cannibal inhabitants.

Bhima.—River of Bombay, rising in lat. 19° 4′ 30″ N., long. 73° 34′ 30″ E., at the village of Bhimáshankar, situated on the Sahyadri Hills in the Kher Subdivision of Poona District; flowing south-east through the Districts of Poona, Ahmednagar, Sholápur, and Kaládgi. After forming the north-eastern boundary of the southern Marhattá country, it falls into the Kistna.

Bhimagandí.—The pass connecting Bellary District, Madras, on the north-east with the Sandhúr State. Lat. 15° 7′ N., long. 76° 3′ E. —*See* RAMANDROOG.

Bhimar.—Village in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 19′ N., long. 71° 33′ E.; on the route from Pokhum to Balma, 56 miles north of the latter. Inhabited chiefly by Chauhán Rájputs.

Bhímaveram.—*Táluk* in Godávari District, Madras. Area, 416 square miles, containing 148 villages, with 21,269 houses; pop. (1871), 92,457; revenue, £37,656. The *táluk* possesses abundant means of irrigation, the chief aqueducts being the Undi, the Chinna Káparam, Gosta *nadi*, and Akuvidu Canals. Numerous minor channels intersect it in all directions. The principal towns are Viravásaram, with 4145 inhabitants; Undi, 1758; Akuvidu, 1916; Gunupudi, 1150. Rice forms the staple product and the main item in the trade.

Bhímaveram.—Village in Nellore District, Madras; granted in support of the Singara-ayakonda shrine. The ancient Vishnuvite temple on a neighbouring hill is said to have been founded by Agastya

ahá Muní; and on the same hill is a cave temple, the entrance to ich is blocked by a large stone image, which the temple guardians ill not allow to be removed. The annual festival in honour of Vishnu, nown as Narasinhaswami, is celebrated in April.

Bhímbándh.—Hot springs in Monghyr District, Bengal; about 16 iles south of Rishikund. Lat. 25° 4′ N., long. 86° 27′ E. The springs, hich are the finest in the District, issue from the eastern base of the Iahádeo Hill, so near the Mau river that they may be considered one of its sources. The hot water issues from four different places at some distance from each other, springing at each place from numerous crevices of the rock. The temperature of the water varies from 144° to 150° F. in the month of March. It is limpid and tasteless, but contains earthy matter, the stones through which the hottest spring bubbles up being encrusted with a deposit resembling calcareous tufa.

Bhímbar.—Torrent in Gujrát District, Punjab. Rises in the second Himálayan range, drains a considerable valley within the mountain region, passes round the Pabbi Hills, runs due south for 25 miles, and fertilizes a low fringe of land upon its banks; 4 miles north-west of Gujrát it loses itself in the surface of the country, moistening and enriching the surrounding plain; collects again near the village of Hariálwála, and runs north-west until it reaches the Jalália *nálá*, a branch of the Chenab. An unmanageable stream during the rains, but completely dry in the winter months, leaving its bed a broad waste of sand. Fordable at all points, except for some hours after heavy rains in the hills.

Bhím Ghorá.—A place of Hindu pilgrimage in Sahâranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 58′ N., long. 78° 14′ E. In a small recess of the mountain bounding the Dehra Dún on the south, and in a perpendicular rock about 350 feet high, is a *kund* or sacred pool supplied with water from a small branch of the Ganges; and above the pool an excavation in the rock, about 5 feet square, occupied by a *fakir*. According to the legend, Bhíma was stationed at this point to preven the Ganges from taking a different course, and the small cave referre to is said to have been made by the kick of the horse on which he wa mounted. Pilgrims bathe in this pool, the waters of which are suppose to have the power of cleansing from sin.

Bhimora.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 187 £813; total payments, £37, of which £31 represents tribute to British Government. Bhimora town, lat. 22° 22′ N., long. 71° 16′ E.

Bhím Tál.—Small lake in Kumáun District, North-Western P vinces, lying among the lower ranges of the Himálayas. Height ab sea level, 4500 feet; dimensions, 5580 feet in length by 1490 in bread

greatest depth, 87 feet. Lat. 29° 19′ N., long. 79° 41′ E. Picturesquely situated in a little mountain valley, surrounded by hills on three sides. Its outlet is through a torrent which ultimately feeds the Rámganga river.

Bhind.—Town in Gwalior, Central India. Lat. 26° 33′ 25″ N., long. 78° 50′ 20″ E. On the route from Etáwah to Gwalior fort, 29 miles south-west of former, 54 north-east of latter. It was formerly populous, and possessed a fort with double rampart; but the whole place is now much decayed.

Bhinga.—*Parganá* in Bahráich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nepál State and Tulsipur *parganá*, on the east by Durgapur, on the south by Ikauna and Bahráich *parganás*, and on the west by Charda *parganá*. Formerly comprised partly in Bahráich and partly in the *tarái parganás* of Dangdún and Behrá. In 1483 A.D., Dangdún was held by a hill Rájá, named Udatt Sinh; and Bherá was then probably under the sway of Rájá Sangrám Sáh, who held the neighbouring *parganá* of Rájhát. The cis-Rápti tract was held by the Ikauna Rájá. Between this date and 1650, the Ikauna chief had extended his sway across the Rápti; and in the time of Sháh Jahán he owned 92 villages in Dangdún. Part of these, and probably the Bherá villages also, were held by a cadet of the house; but the estate, which was always open to the raids of the Banjáras, was troublesome to manage, and the *tálukdár*, who was connected with the Gonda family by marriage, yielded his rights in favour of Bhawání Sinh Bisen, younger son of the Gonda Rájá. The present *tálukdár* is sixth in descent from Bhawání Sinh. The Maháráj́á of Balrámpur also possesses a good deal of land in the *parganá*. Bisected by the river Rápti from north-west to south-east, it has well-defined physical features. The basin of the Rápti, and its affluent the Bhaklá, embrace a *doáb* of unusually rich alluvial soil. Skirting the north of this tract is a belt of reserved forest about 4 miles wide, which once contained some fine *sál* timber, but has now little wood of value. North of this again is a tract of low *tarái* land bordering the forest which lies along the lower Himálayan range, and forming the finest rice-producing ground in Bahráich District. In the southern portion of the *parganá*, wheat and Indian corn are the staples. Irrigation is hardly required. Of a total area of 247 square miles, 140 are returned as under cultivation, 28 as cultivable waste, and 61 as reserved forest. Pop. (1869), 67,171 Hindus and 7357 Muhammadans—total, 74,528, viz. 38,737 males and 35,791 females. Number of villages or towns, 156. District roads from Bhinga town to Bahráich, Nánpára, and Ikauna. Little trade beyond export of rice, and a small amount of inferior timber. Five villages contain schools; two post offices.

Bhinga.—Chief place of *parganá* of same name in Bahráich District,

dh; situated on the left bank of the Rápti, 24 miles north-east of hráich town. Founded about 300 years ago by one of the Rájás Ikauna, and about 150 years afterwards made over, together with parganá, to a younger son of the Rájá of Gonda, whose scendant still has his residence in the town. Lat. 27° 42′ N., long. ° 57′ 26″ E.; pop. (1869), 3261 Hindus and 1080 Muhammadans—tal, 4341, dwelling in 1615 houses. School and dispensary maintained y the Rájá; police station; post office.

Bhingár.—Municipal town in Ahmadnagar District, Bombay. Lat. 9° 6′ N., long. 74° 49′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 5752; municipal revenue 1874-75), £323; rate of taxation, 1s. 2d. per head of population (5577) within municipal limits.

Bhiria.—Municipal town in Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind. Lat. 26° 55′ N., long. 68° 14′ 15″ E. Pop. (1872), 2549, mainly agricultural,—Síkhs, 1488; Muhammadans, chiefly Sayyids and Memons, 926; Hindus, chiefly Lohános, 135. Municipal revenue in 1873-74, £182; rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 5d. per head of pop. within municipal limits. Market.

Bhita Sarkhandí.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated about 2 miles east of the Murhá river, close to the frontier of Nepál, with which State a considerable trade is conducted in grain, cloth, and salt. Lat. 26° 37′ N., long. 85° 52′ E.

Bhitauli.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated between the Kauriála and the Chauka rivers, and adjoining Rámnagar *parganá*. A Raikwár *parganá*, confiscated for the rebellion of its owner during the Mutiny, and bestowed upon the Mahárájá of Kapurthála, who is the present possessor. Area, 62 square miles, of which 32 are cultivated; Government land revenue demand, £926, or at the rate of 8¼d. per arable acre, the lightest assessment in Oudh; pop. (1869), 25,320 Hindus and 1344 Muhammadans—total, 26,624, viz. 14,133 males and 12,531 females; number of villages or towns, 41; average density of population, 430 per square mile.

Bhitauli.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 12 miles east of Purwa, close to the river Sai. Pop. (1869), 4490 Hindus (of whom 2700 are Kshattriyás) and 166 Muhammadans—total, 4656. Alleged to have been founded about 600 years ago by two Káyasths. Pleasantly situated among groves of mango trees. Vernacular school.

Bhit Sháh.—A town in Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1640; the Muhammadans being chiefly of the Wasand, Sand Khaskeli, and Bagrá tribes—among them some families of Pírs of considerable local repute; the Hindus chiefly Lohános. Founded in 1727 b Sháh Abdul Latíf, in whose honour an annual fair is held here, large attended by Muhammadans. Some trade in food grains and cotton.

Bhiwandi.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name,

Tanna District, Bombay; 29 miles north-east of Bombay, and 10 miles north of Tanna. Lat. 19° 18′ 10″ N., long. 73° 6′ E.; pop. (1872), 11,907. Together with the neighbouring village of Nizámpur, Bhiwandi forms a municipality. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £1000; rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 3d. per head of population (15,819) within municipal limits. Bhiwandi is supplied with water by means of an aqueduct constructed by the inhabitants with the aid of a Government contribution of £500. The population and mercantile importance of this place are on the increase. There is a sub-judge's court, a post office, and a dispensary. Average annual value of sea-borne trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £95,622; imports, £52,002.

Bhiwáni.—*Tahsíl* of Hissár District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 41′ 30″ to 28° 51′ N., long. 76° 8′ to 76° 16′ E.

Bhiwáni.—Municipal town in Hissár District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl;* distant 37 miles south-east from Hissár. Lat. 28° 46′ N., long. 76° 11′ 45″ E.; pop. (1868), 32,270, comprising 29,182 Hindus, 3059 Muhammadans, 12 Síkhs, and 17 'others.' Principal centre of trade in the District. Bhiwáni was an insignificant village at the beginning of the present century; but being chosen in 1827 as the site of a free market, it rose rapidly to importance, and became the *entrepôt* for trade from Bíkaner (Bickaneer), Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere), and Jáipur (Jeypore). The opening of the Rájputána State Railway, several miles to the south, will doubtless affect prejudicially the commerce of Bhiwáni. Stands in an open sandy plain, treeless and uncultivated; good wide metalled streets; suburbs covered with mud hovels, huddled together without order or arrangement. *Tahsílí*, school, police station, dispensary. Brisk trade in sugar, pepper, spices, metals, salt, and declining mart for cotton cloth. Mercantile firms in Southern India have agents in the city. Municipal income in 1875-76, £2835, or 1s. 8d. per head of population (33,149) within municipal limits.

Bhiwápur.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; 16 miles south-east of Umrer, on the road to Pauni in Bhandára. Lat. 20° 46′ N., long. 79° 33′ 30″ E.; pop. (1870), 4557. An early Gond settlement, founded about A.D. 1550 by Bhímsá, who built the now dilapidated fort, where a blind Gond, Bhímsá's lineal descendant, was living in 1870, with a small pension from Government. Bhiwápur manufactures cloth inferior only to that produced at Nágpur and Umrer. Besides other trade, banking is carried on, chiefly by Agarwálá Márwárís, who have been long settled here. The town has two good metalled roads, a new schoolhouse, a *sarái* (native inn), and a market-place, with a large public masonry well.

Bhodaw-Kanní.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 3963; area, 126 square miles,

etching east from the Arakan Mountains to the river Bassein. The untry to the west is hilly, covered with forests of teak and bamboo, e felling and sale of which afford a livelihood to the inhabitants the interior. Rice is grown in the plains between the lower slopes the range and the Bassein. Pottery is manufactured at Tsha-daw the mouth of the Kwon; fishing, cultivation, and trade occupy ie inhabitants in the east. Gross revenue (1876-77), £904.

Bhogái.—River in the Gáro Hills District, Assam.

Bhogarmang.—Mountain valley in Hazára District, Punjab; situated between 34° 30′ and 34° 48′ 15″ N. lat., and 73° 14′ 15″ and 73° 24′ 30″ E. long.; forming the main source of the Siran river, and surrounded by pine-clad hills, from 8000 to 13,000 feet in height. Area, 77,418 acres, of which 7563 are cultivated; pop. (1868), 10,022, chiefly Gujars, with a few Swátis. The inhabitants are dependent for support upon their cattle, of which they possess large herds. Climate cool and pleasant in summer, but very severe in winter.

Bhogawaddar.—Petty State of Gohelwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £500; payments, £55, of which £41 represents tribute to the Gáekwár.

Bhognipur.—South-western *tahsíl* of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by the Bhognipur branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 275 square miles, of which 170 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 104,151; land revenue, £19,003; total Government revenue, £20,904; rental paid by cultivators, £34,396; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 1⅞d.

Bhográi.—Embankment at the mouth of the SUBARNAREKHA river in Balasor District, Bengal; completed in 1870. An embankment was constructed here by the Marhattás, and afterwards replaced by another built by the British Government. Both of these were constructed too close to the river to allow the free escape of the waters in time of flood, and they were consequently destroyed. The present embankment, completed in 1870, runs farther back, so as to give sufficient waterway.

Bhoika.—Petty State of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 3 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £1366; total charge, £203, of which £176 is paid as tribute to the British Government.

Bhojpur.—Town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 57′ N., long. 78° 52′ E.; area, 54 acres; pop. (1872), 5121, comprising 1272 Hindus and 3849 Musalmáns. Distant from Moradábád 8 miles north; from Dhela river 1 mile east. Agricultural centre, of commercial importance.

Bhojpur.—Municipal town in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Lat.

35′ 8″ N., long. 84° 9′ 48″ E.; area, 4·3 square miles; pop. (1872), 7004, comprising 5427 Hindus and 1577 Muhammadans; municipal income, £100; incidence of municipal taxation, 3⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Bhombadi.—Township and revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, British Burma.—*See* BHUMMAWADI.

Bhomoráguri.—Forest reserve in the north of Darrang District, Assam. Estimated area, 386·7 acres. Bounded north and west by the hill of the same name.

Bhongáon.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by the rivers Arind and Isan, between which runs the Cawnpore branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 463 square miles, of which 264 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 200,753; land revenue, £26,076; total Government revenue, £28,683; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 9½d.

Bhongáon.—Town in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of same name. Lat. 27° 15′ 30″ N., long. 79° 12′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 6271, comprising 4496 Hindus and 1775 Muhammadans. Distant 9½ miles east from Máinpuri, at the junction of the Agra and Grand Trunk roads. Collection of straggling hamlets, with little pretensions to rank as a town. Two *bázárs*, *sarái* (native inn), *tahsíli*, police station, good-sized *jhíl* or lake, modern mosque and temple. Founded, according to tradition, by Rájá Bhím Sen, who was cured of leprosy by bathing in the *jhíl*. Possessed some importance under the Mughal emperors, and has a ruined fort on an artificial mound; but its trade has now shifted to towns upon the railway.

Bhoommawadee.—Township and revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, British Burma.—*See* BHUMAWADI.

Bhoon-maw.—Pagoda in Tenasserim, British Burma.—*See* BHUN-MAW.

Bhoora-hla.—Revenue circle, Bassein District, British Burma.—*See* BHURA-HLA.

Bhoot-khyoung.—Revenue circle, British Burma.—*See* BHUT-KHYOUNG.

Bhoot-pyeng.—Revenue circle, Mergui District, British Burma.—*See* BHUT-PYENG.

Bhopál.—A tract of country in Central India occupied by a collection of Native States (known as the Bhopál Agency), under the political superintendence of the Governor-General's Agent for Central India. Bounded north and east by the Central Provinces, and south and west by various Native States of Central India. Area, about 10,150 square miles; estimated population (1875), 1,003,000. The ten States comprising the agency are BHOPAL, RAJGHAR, NARSINHGHAR, KARWAI, MAKSUDANGAR, KILCHIPUR, BASODA, MUHAMMADGHAR, PATHARI, and

RAWAD, all of which see separately. In addition to the above, the litical Agent has also charge of isolated patches of territory belonging the States of Gwalior, Indore, Tonk, and Dewás.

Bhopál.—Native State in Málwá, in the Bhopál Political Agency, entral India, under the Government of India; lying between 22° 32′ nd 23° 46′ N. lat., and between 76° 25′ and 78° 50′ E. long.; estimated rea, 8200 square miles; estimated revenue, £268,340; population in 875, about 769,200. Bounded north by Sindhia's possessions and Dhar, east by Ságar (Saugor), south by the Narbadá (Nerbudda), and west by Holkár's and Sindhia's possessions. The present ruler, Sháh Jahán Begam, an Afghán of the Mirázái Khel tribe, succeeded in 1844; she has one daughter, Sultán Jahán Begam, now recognised as heir to the State.

The Bhopál dynasty was founded by Dost Muhammad, an Afghán in the service of Aurangzeb, who took advantage of the revolutions which followed the death of the Emperor to establish his independent authority in Bhopál and the neighbouring country. The Bhopál family have always manifested an amicable feeling towards the British Government. In 1778, when General Goddard made his bold march across India, the State of Bhopál was the only Indian power which showed itself friendly; and in 1809, when another British expedition, commanded by General Close, appeared in that part of India, the Nawáb of Bhopál earnestly, but in vain, petitioned to be received under British protection. The Nawáb then allied himself with the Pindárís, and made a most gallant defence against the attempts of Sindhia and Raghojí Bhonslá to crush him; their efforts were finally restrained by the intervention of the British power. In 1817, at the commencement of the Pindári war, the British Government formed a close alliance with Bhopál. It was chiefly by the aid of the Pindárís that Bhopál had been able to defy the attacks of Sindhia and the Rájá of Nágpur; but his connection with these freebooters was distasteful to the Nawáb, and only tolerated on account of his inability to control them. A treaty was made in 1818 by which the British Government guaranteed his possession of the State; and the Nawáb agreed to furnish a contingent of 600 horse and 400 infantry, and received five Districts in Málwá as a reward for his services, and to enable him to maintain the contingent. The Nawáb soon afterwards met his death from a pistol accidentally discharged by a child. His nephew, an infant, was thereupon declared his successor, and betrothed to the infant daughter of the deceased prince. But the widow of the Nawáb, Kúdsia Begam, wished to keep the State in her own hands, even after the declared heir had resigned his claim to the State and to the hand of the Nawáb's daughter, Sikandar Begam, in favour of his brother, Jahángír Muhammad. After much dissension, lasting through several years, in 1837, by the mediation of the British

Government, Jahángír Muhammad was restored to power, and installed as Nawáb. On his death in 1844, he was succeeded by his widow, Sikandar Begam, who ruled Bhopál until her death in 1868. She made a name for herself by faithful services to the Government of India during the Mutiny, and by the ability she displayed in the management of the State. She was succeeded by the present ruler, Sháh Jahán, who is no unworthy successor, and is distinguished by the same loyalty to the British Crown. Her first husband died in 1867, leaving her one daughter, Sultán Jahán Begam above mentioned. After her husband's death, Sháh Jahán, following the footsteps of her mother, threw aside the restrictions of the *pardah*, conducted business with vigour, and was always accessible. In recognition of her high administrative qualities and her loyalty, she received in 1872 the honour of the Grand Cross of the Star of India. In 1871 she contracted a second marriage with Maulví Sádik Husáin, and since then has withdrawn from personal supervision of State affairs, and resumed the retirement which the *pardah* imposes. The same honours are paid to her present husband as were enjoyed by his predecessor, and he has received the title of Nawáb. The Sultán Jahán Begam was married in 1874, with the consent of Government, to Ahmad Alí Khán. He is of the same tribe as that to which the Bhopál family belongs, the Mirázái Khel, but he is not a member of the family.

The Begam of Bhopál is entitled to a salute of 19 guns. The force maintained by the State consists of 694 horse, 2200 foot, 14 field and 43 other guns, with 291 artillerymen. In commutation of a contingent of 7600 horse and 400 infantry which the State had stipulated to furnish under treaty, Bhopál now pays annually 2 *lákhs* of rupees (say £20,000) in cash. A further payment of £500 is made by the State for the support of the Sehore school. The contribution of £1200 per annum formerly paid by the State for the construction and repair of roads within its territory was remitted in 1873, on the understanding that the Begam will keep in proper repair the roads already made, and spend a reasonable sum annually in opening up others. In 1875, the amount sanctioned for roads by the Bhopál Darbár was £210 per annum, to which the Begam herself added a donation of 1 *lákh* of rupees (£10,000), and the Kúdsia Begam £2500 per annum. A road is under construction from Bhopál to Hoshangábád. It is expected to be an important feeder to the Great Indian Peninsular Railway. The British Government has by a *sanad* of 1862 recognised the right of succession in Bhopál according to Muhammadan law and the customs of the State. The chief has power of life and death in judicial matters; and the territories of Bhopál are beyond the jurisdiction of British courts.

Bhopál.—Principal town of the State of the same name in Central

India. Lat. 23° 15′ 35″ N., long. 77° 25′ 56″ E. Surrounded by a masonry wall two miles in circuit, within which is a fort, also of masonry; both much dilapidated. Outside the town is a *ganj* or trading quarter; and to the south-west, on a large rock, is a fort called Fatehgarh, with a masonry rampart and square towers—the residence of the ruler of the State. South-west of this fort spreads a fine artificial lake, 4½ miles long and 1½ mile broad; and on the east of the town another, 2 miles in length. The Political Resident lives at Bhopál. Distant from Allahábád 325 miles south-west; from Calcutta, *viâ* Sambulpur and Nágpur, 790 north-west.

Bhor.—Native State within the Political Agency of Satára, in the Deccan, Bombay. Estimated area, 1491 square miles, with independent tracts; pop. (1872), 136,075; gross revenue, from land tax and transit dues, £44,289. Except in one tract, where the land is level, the country is covered with hills. Three-fourths of the soil is red, the remainder is blue and grey; principal products—rice and *nágli* (Eleusine corocana). The family of the chief are Hindus, Bráhmans by caste. They hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption, and the succession is not restricted to the rule of primogeniture. The present (1875) chief is Sankar Ráo Chimnají Gandekar by name, with the title of *jágírdár* of Bhor and Pant Sachiva. He maintains for other than military purposes a retinue of 535 followers. A tribute of £527, 12s. is paid to the British Government. There are 18 schools, with 732 pupils.

Bhor.—Chief town of the State of the same name, in the Deccan, Bombay; 25 miles south of Poona. Lat. 18° 9′ N., long. 73° 53′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 3964.

Bhotmárí.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 1′ N., long. 89° 13′ E. Chief trade—jute, tobacco, and ginger.

Bhuban.—Range of hills in the southern portion of Cáchár District, Assam, forming the watershed between the Bárak and Sonái rivers. They run north and south at a short distance from the eastern boundary of the District. Their height varies from 700 feet to 3000 feet, and their slopes are very precipitous.

Bhudwána.—A petty State of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay consisting of 2 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimate revenue in 1876, £554; total tribute, £108, of which £100 is pai to the British Government.

Bhuj.—Chief town of the State of Cutch (Kachchh), in politic connection with the Bombay Presidency; situated at the base of fortified hill. Lat. 23° 15′ N., long. 69° 48′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 23,8 Bhuj is a cantonment town, and has a post office and a dispensa The place is chiefly interesting for its archæological monuments, and

having been at an early period dedicated to the snake divinity Bhujánga or Bhujiya. None of the buildings in the town is of earlier date than the middle of the 16th century. The mosque inside the city gate is remarkable for the thickness of its piers, and their closeness to one another—an arrangement by which only a few of the worshippers can ever be within sight of the rest. The town contains the mausoleums of the Ráos of Cutch; and in its neighbourhood are a number of shrines and Muhammadan *dargahs*, of no special importance.

Bhukár.—Tributary State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal.—*See* CHANG BHUKAR.

Bhulgamra.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 3 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers; estimated revenue in 1876, £1183; tribute, £150, of which £140 is paid to the British Government.

Bhullooah (another name for Noákhálí).—District in Bengal.—*See* NOAKHALI.

Bhum (or *Bhím*).—*Ghát* in Madras.—*See* CHAMARDI.

Bhúm Bakeswar.—Group of hot sulphur springs on the banks of the Bakeswar *nálá*, about 1 mile south of Tántipára village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 53′ 30″ N., long. 87° 24′ 45″ E. The temperature of the water varies from 128° to 162° F. About 120 cubic feet of water per minute are ejected from the hottest well.

Bhúmawadí (*Bhoommawadee*).—Township in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim, British Burma; on the left bank of the river Tsittoung, extending north from Shwe-gyeng District to the river Thit-nan-tha. The country is level and cultivated along the Tsittoung; in the east it is mountainous and covered with forests of teak and other valuable timber. The chief lakes are Engwon and Zengdon, both in the south-west of the circle. Gross revenue (1876), £1933; pop. (1876), 18,481.

Bhúmawadí (*Bhoommawadee*).—Revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim, British Burma; on the left bank of the river Tsittoung, and adjoining Shwe-gyeng District on the south. Bhúmawadí is now joined to Máipalan circle.

Bhúng Bára.—A tract formerly pertaining to Sind, and granted, together with Sabzalkot, in 1843, to the Nawáb of Baháwalpur, from whose ancestors it had been wrested by the Tálpur Mírs, in reward for services rendered to the British during the first Afghán war. It yielded, when under the Tálpur administration, an annual revenue of £6000. Lat. of Bhúng town, 28° 24′ N., long. 69° 50′ E.

Bhún-maw (*Bhoon-maw*).—Celebrated pagoda in Talaing Thounggún village, Tenasserim, British Burma. Built in 1341 A.D. by an exiled Pegu prince on a bluff called Kyet-tsha-maw, about 3 miles north-east of Tavoy. It is octagonal in shape, 41 feet high, and 117 feet in circumference at the base, and still carries a Talaing-htí.

Bhupálpatnam.—The most westerly chiefship in the Bastar dependency, Central Provinces, lying between 18° 32′ 30″ and 19° 9′ N. lat., and between 80° 18′ and 80° 50′ E. long.; containing about 150 villages; area, about 700 square miles. The chief is a Gond.

Bhuppaya.—*See* GODAVARI (Anicut).

Bhur.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh. One of the largest *parganás* in the Province; in shape an irregular parallelogram, extending from north-west to south-east. Bounded on the north by Pália and Nighásan *parganás*, the Chauka river marking the boundary line; on the east by Srínagar *parganá*; on the south and west by Sháhjahánpur District of the North-Western Provinces. Bhur possesses one very marked geographical feature, in the shape of a high ridge or plateau, rising suddenly from 20 to 50 feet in height, running parallel to the river Chauka, which at one time flowed just under it. The tract between this ridge and the present course of the river comprises about one-fourth of the entire *parganá*. It is a low-lying plain, known as the *ganjar*, regularly inundated by the river during the autumn rains, and sparsely inhabited, the villages and hamlets being widely scattered and built upon slightly elevated sites. The upland tract is by far the richest part of the *parganá*, and contains many large and populous villages, some with large masonry buildings, embowered in groves and fruit trees, and with a dense and apparently prosperous population. Soil excellent, producing luxuriant crops; easy facilities for irrigation. Area, 376 square miles, of which 135 are under cultivation; pop. 68,358 Hindus, 5613 Muhammadans—total, 73,971, viz. 40,306 males and 33,665 females; number of villages, 189; average density of population, 181 per square mile.

Bhúra-hla (*Bhoora-hla*).—Revenue circle in Ngapútaú township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 95 square miles; occupying the southern angle between the Arakan Hills on the west and the Bassein river on the east, as far north as the Bhúra-hla stream. A mountainous country traversed by spurs of the Arakan Yoma Hills. The circle includes Haing-gyí, or Negrais Island, in the mouth of the Bassein river, which is separated from the mainland by a channel varying from 800 feet to 1500 feet in breadth. This island is 11 miles in circumference, and much intersected by creeks. It is flat and shelving to the south, but hilly to the north, where is the site of the old factory. Diamond Island, the station of the lighthouse-keepers of Alguada, when they are not on duty there, lies outside the mouth of the Bassein. It is low and covered with brushwood, and is leased out as a turtle-bank, producing a large revenue. Gross revenue of Bhúra-hla (1876-77), £1852; pop. (1876), 2004, chiefly engaged in fishing and in the manufacture of *gnapí*.

Bhurtpore.—State, Rájputána.—*See* BHARTPUR.

Bhusáwal.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Khándesh District, Bombay; 64 miles east of Dhulia. Lat. 21° 1′ 30″ N., long. 75° 47′ E.; pop. (1872), 6804. Sub-judge's court and post office. Bhusáwal is the headquarters station of the chief revenue and police officers of the Subdivision, and the junction station of the Nágpur and Allahábád branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Until the opening of this railway, it was an unimportant village in Sindhia's territory, the property of a member of the Nimbalkar family. The town was acquired by the British Government with the rest of the Warangáon (now Bhusáwal) Subdivision in 1861. It has since increased rapidly in size, and has now a local trade of some consequence.

Bhután. — An independent State in the Eastern Himálayas, between 26° and 28° N. lat. and 89° and 93° E. long. It is bounded on the north by Thibet; on the east by a tract inhabited by various uncivilised independent mountain tribes; on the south by the British Province of Assam, and the District of Jalpáiguri; and on the west by the independent Native State of Sikkim.

Physical Aspects.—The whole of Bhután may be shortly described as a succession of lofty and rugged mountains, abounding in picturesque and sublime scenery. 'The prospect,' says Captain Turner, 'between abrupt and lofty prominences is inconceivably grand; hills clothed to their very summits with trees, dark and deep glens, and the high tops of mountains lost in the clouds, constitute altogether a scene of extraordinary magnificence and sublimity.' As might be expected from its physical structure, this alpine region sends out numerous rivers in a southerly direction, which, forcing their passage through narrow defiles, and precipitated in cataracts over the precipices, eventually pour themselves into the Brahmaputra. One torrent is mentioned by Turner as falling over so great a height that it is nearly dissipated in mid-air, and looks from below like a jet of steam. Of the rivers traversing Bhután, the most considerable is the Manás, flowing in its progress to the Brahmaputra under the walls of Tásgáon, below which it is unfordable. At the foot of Tásgáon Hill it is crossed by a suspension bridge. The other principal rivers are the Máchu, Tchinchu, Torshá, Mánchi, and Dharlá.

People.—Previous to the British annexation of the Dwárs, the area of the kingdom was reckoned at 20,000 square miles. The population of the country now remaining to Bhután was estimated in 1864 at 20,000 souls. Later information, however, points to a larger figure. The people are industrious, and devote themselves to agriculture, but from the geological structure of the country, and from the insecurity of property, regular husbandry is limited to comparatively few spots. The people are oppressed and poor. 'Nothing that a Bhutiá possesses is his own,' wrote the British Envoy in 1864; 'he is at

ll times liable to lose it if it attracts the cupidity of any one more powerful than himself. The lower classes, whether villagers or public servants, are little better than the slaves of higher officials. In regard to them, no rights of property are observed, and they have at once to surrender anything that is demanded of them. There never was, I fancy, a country in which the doctrine of "might is right" formed more completely the whole and sole law and custom of the land than it does in Bhután. No official receives a salary; he has certain Districts made over to him, and he may get what he can out of them; a certain portion of his gains he is compelled to send to the Darbár; and the more he extorts and the more he sends to his superior, the longer his tenure of office is likely to be.' Captain Pemberton thus describes their moral condition: 'I sometimes saw a few persons in whom the demoralizing influences of such a state of society had yet left a trace of the image in which they were originally created, and where the feelings of nature still exercised their accustomed influence, but the exceptions were rare; and although I have travelled and resided amongst various savage tribes on our frontiers, I have never yet known a people so wholly degraded as the Bhutiás.' Physically the Bhutiás are a fine race, although dirty in their habits and persons. Their food consists of meat, chiefly pork, turnips, rice, barley-meal, and tea made from the brick-tea of China. Their favourite drink is *chong*, distilled from rice or barley and millet, and *maruá*, beer made from fermented millet. A loose woollen coat reaching to the knees, and bound round the waist by a thick fold of cotton cloth, forms the costume of the men; the women's dress is a long cloak with loose sleeves. The houses of the Bhutiás are of three and four stories; all the floors are neatly boarded with deal; and on two sides of the house is a verandah ornamented with carved work, generally painted. The Bhutiás are neat joiners, and their doors, windows, and panelling are perfect in their way. No iron-work is used; the doors open on ingenious wooden hinges. The appearance of the houses is precisely that of Swiss chalets, picturesque and comfortable—the only drawback being a want of chimneys, which the Bhutiás do not know how to construct. The people nominally profess the Buddhist religion, but in reality their religious exercises are confined to the propitiation of evil spirits, and the mechanical recital of a few sacred sentences. Around the cottages in the mountains the land is cleared for cultivation, and produces fair crops of barley, wheat, buck wheat, millet, mustard, chillies, etc. Turnips of excellent quality ar extensively grown; they are free from fibre and remarkably swee The wheat and barley have a full round grain, and the climate is w adapted to the production of both European and Asiatic vegetabl Potatoes have been introduced. The Bhutiás lay out their fields in series of terraces cut out of the sides of the hills; each terrace

riveted and supported by stone embankments, sometimes 20 feet high. Every field is carefully fenced with pine branches, or protected by a stone wall. A complete system of irrigation permeates the whole cultivated area of a village, the water being often brought from a long distance through stone aqueducts. The Bhutiás do not care to extend their cultivation, as an increased revenue is exacted in proportion to the land cultivated, but devote their whole energies to make the land yield twice what it is estimated to produce.

Natural Products.—The extensive forests of Bhután abound in many varieties of stately trees. Among them are the beech, ash, birch, maple, cypress, and yew. Firs and pines cover the mountain heights; and below these, but still at an elevation of 8000 or 9000 feet, is a zone of vegetation consisting principally of oaks and rhododendrons. The cinnamon tree is also found. Some of the roots and branches were examined by Turner during his journey to Thibet; but the plant being neither in blossom nor bearing fruit, it was impossible to decide whether it was the true cinnamon or an inferior kind of cassia. The leaf, however, corresponded with the description given of the true cinnamon by Linnæus. The lower ranges of the hills teem with animal life. Elephants are so numerous as to be dangerous to travellers; but tigers are not common, except near the river Tistá. Leopards abound in the Hah valley; deer everywhere, some of them of a very large species. The musk deer is found in the snows, and the barking deer on every hill-side. Wild hogs are met with even at great elevations. Large squirrels are common. Bears and rhinoceros are also found. Pheasants, jungle fowls, pigeons, and other small game abound. The Bhutiás are no sportsmen. They have a superstitious objection to firing a gun, thinking that it offends the deities of the woods and valleys, and brings down rain. A species of horse or rather pony which seems indigenous to Bhután, and is used as a domestic animal, is called *tángan*, from Tángastán, the general appellation of that assemblage of mountains which constitutes the territory of Bhután. It is peculiar to this tract, not being found in any of the neighbouring countries of Assam, Nepál, Thibet, or Bengal, and unites in an eminent degree the two qualities of strength and beauty. The *tángan* pony usually stands about 13 hands high, and is short-bodied, clean-limbed, deep in the chest, and extremely active; his colour inclines to piebald.

Manufactures, etc.—In so rude a country, the manufacturing industry of the people is, as might be expected, at a low stage, the few articles produced being all destined for home consumption. These consist of coarse blankets and cotton cloth made by the villagers inhabiting the southern tract. Leather, from the hide of the buffalo, imperfectly tanned, furnishes the soles of snow boots. Circular bowls are neatly turned from various woods. A small quantity of paper is made from a plant described

as the Daphne papyrifera. Swords, iron spears, and arrow-heads, and a few copper caldrons fabricated from the metal obtained in the country, complete the list of manufactures. The foreign trade of Bhután has greatly declined. In 1809, the trade between Assam and Bhután amounted to £20,000 per annum, the lac, madder, silk, *erendi* cloth, and dried fish of Assam being exchanged for the woollens, gold-dust, salt, musk, ponies, and silk of Bhután. In 1876–77, the entire trade between Bhután and British India was roughly estimated at £31,000. The exports were £9100 into Assam and £1300 into Bengal; the imports, £20,000 from Assam and £1000 from Bengal.

The military resources of the country are on an insignificant scale. Beyond the guards for the defence of the various castles, there is nothing like a standing army. The total military force was estimated by the British envoy in 1864 at 6000 men.

Meteorology. — The climate of Bhután varies according to the difference of elevation. At the time when the inhabitants of Punákhá (the winter residence of the Rájás) are afraid of exposing themselves to the blazing sun, those of Ghásá experience all the rigour of winter, and are chilled by perpetual snows. Yet these places are within sight of each other. The rains descend in floods upon the heights, but in the vicinity of Tásisudon, the capital, they are moderate; there are frequent showers, but nothing that can be compared to the tropical rains of Bengal. Owing to the great elevation and steepness of the mountains, terrible storms arise among the hollows, often attended with fatal results.

History.—Bhután formerly belonged to a tribe called by the Bhutiás Tephu, generally believed to have been the Kochs of Kuch Behar. About two hundred years ago a band of Thibetan soldiers subjugated the Tephus, and settled down in the country. At the head o the Bhután Government there are nominally two supreme autho rities, the Dharm Rájá, the spiritual head, and the Deb Rájá, th temporal ruler. To aid these Rájás in administering the countr is a council of permanent ministers, called the Lenchen. Pract cally, however, there is no government at all. Subordinate office and rapacious governors of forts wield all the power of the Sta and oppression and anarchy reign over the whole country. T Dharm Rájá is regarded as an incarnation of the deity. On his de a year or two is allowed to elapse; and the new incarnation th reappears in the shape of a child, who generally happens to be b in the family of a principal officer. The child establishes his iden by recognising the cooking utensils, etc. of the late Dharm R he is then trained in a monastery, and on attaining his majorit recognised as Rájá, though he exercises no more real auth than he did in his infancy. The Deb Rájá is in theory electe

the council. In practice, he is merely the nominee of whichever of the two governors of East or West Bhután happens for the time to be the more powerful. The relations of the British with Bhután commenced in 1772, when the Bhutiás invaded the principality of Kuch Behar, a dependency of Bengal. The Kuch Behar ruler applied for aid, and a force under Captain James was despatched to his assistance; the invaders were expelled and pursued into their own territory. Upon the intercession of Teshu Lama, then regent of Thibet, a treaty of peace was concluded in 1774 between the East India Company and the ruler of Bhután. In 1783, Captain Turner was deputed to Bhután, with a view to promoting commercial intercourse, but his mission proved unsuccessful. From this period few dealings took place with Bhután, until the occupation of Assam by the British in 1826. It was then discovered that the Bhutiás had usurped several tracts of low land lying at the foot of the mountains, called the Dwárs or passes, and for these they agreed to pay a small tribute. They failed to do so, however, and availed themselves of the command of the passes to commit depredations within British territory. Captain Pemberton was accordingly deputed to Bhután, to adjust the points of difference. But his negotiations yielded no definite result; and every other means of obtaining redress and security proving unsuccessful, the Assam Dwárs were wrested from the Bhutiás, and the British Government consented to pay to Bhután a sum of £1000 per annum as compensation for the resumption of their tenure, during the good behaviour of the Bhutiás. Continued outrages and aggressions were, however, committed by the Bhutiás on British subjects in the Dwárs. Notwithstanding repeated remonstrances and threats, scarcely a year passed without the occurrence of several raids in British territory headed by Bhutiá officials, in which they plundered the inhabitants, massacred them, or carried them away as slaves. In 1863, the Hon. Ashley Eden was sent as an envoy to Bhután, to demand reparation for these outrages. He did not succeed in his mission; he was subjected to the grossest insults; and under compulsion signed a treaty giving over the disputed territory to Bhután, and making other concessions extorted by the Bhután Government. On Mr. Eden's return, the Viceroy at once disavowed his treaty, sternly stopped the former allowance for the Assam Dwárs, and demanded the immediate restoration of all British subjects kidnapped during the last five years. The Bhutiás not complying with this demand, the Governor-General issued a proclamation, dated the 12th November 1864, by which the eleven Western or Bengal Dwárs were forthwith incorporated with the Queen's Indian dominions. No resistance was at first offered to the annexation; but, suddenly, in January 1865, the Bhutiás surprised the English garrison at Diwángiri,

and the post was abandoned with the loss of two mountain train guns. The disaster was soon retrieved by General Tombs, and the Bhutiás were compelled to sue for peace, which was concluded on the 11th November 1865. The Bhután Government formally ceded all the eighteen Dwárs of Bengal and Assam, with the rest of the territory taken from them, and agreed to liberate all kidnapped British subjects. As the revenues of Bhután mainly depended on these Dwárs, the British Government, in return for these concessions, undertook to pay the Deb and Dharm Rájás annually, subject to the condition of continued good behaviour, an allowance beginning at £2500 and rising gradually to a maximum of twice that amount. Since that time nothing of importance has occurred, and the annexed territories have settled down into peaceful and prosperous British Districts.

Bhutána.—Petty State of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £316, of which £70 is paid as tribute, including £64 to the British Government. Lat. 22° 41′ N.; long. 71° 54′ E.

Bhút-khyoung (*Bhoot-khyoung*).—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 45 square miles; on the left bank of the Bassein river. The greater portion of the circle consists of low swamps covered with grass and tree forest; a little rice is cultivated in the east. There are no cart roads, only dry-weather footpaths and tracks to the rice fields. Gross revenue (1876-77), £1037; pop. (1876), 5466, chiefly engaged in fishing.

Bhút-pyeng (*Bhoot-pyeng*).—Revenue circle in Mergui District, Tenasserim, British Burma; occupying the whole of the southern portion of Le-gnya township. Very mountainous. Gross revenue (1876-77), £252; pop. (1876), 1848.

Bhuvaneswar.—The temple city of Siva in Purí District, Bengal. Lat. 20° 14′ 45″ N., long. 85° 52′ 26″ E. A sacred place of pilgrimage, and for six centuries the capital of the Siva-worshipping kings of the Kesarí or Lion dynasty of Orissa. The founder of the line, Yayati Kesarí, began the building of the great fane about 500 A.D.; two succeeding monarchs laboured at it, and the fourth of the house completed it in 657 A.D. The last public act of the dynasty was the building of the beautiful vestibule between 1099 and 1104, or little more than a quarter of a century before the extinction of the race. Seven thousand shrines once clustered round the sacred lake of Bhuvaneswar. Not more than 500 or 600 now remain, and these are nearly all deserted and in ruins. They exhibit every stage of Orissa art, from the rough conceptions of the 6th century, through the exquisite designs and ungrudging artistic toil of the 12th, to the hurried and dishonest stucco imitations of Hindu architecture at the present day.

Bhwai-beng-gan. — Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu

Division, British Burma; situated to the North of Poung-day town, of which it forms part. Gross revenue (1876-77), £526; pop. (1876), 2738.

Bhwot-lay.—River in Pegu, British Burmah.—*See* PA-DE.

Bhwot-lay.—Revenue circle in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A partially cultivated country. Chief crops—rice, sesamum, and maize. The circle includes the villages and village tracts of Bhwot-lay, Toung-na-tha, Htouk-kyan-daing, and Poukaing. Total revenue (1876-77), £553; pop. (1876), 2975.

Biáns.—Pass in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, over the Himálayan range into Thibet; lying between 30° 3′ and 30° 28′ N. lat., and between 80° 42′ and 80° 57′ E. long. Has two forks, known respectively as the Lanpiya Dhúra and Mangshá Dhúra, the former of which reaches an elevation of 18,000 feet above sea level. The Bhutiás carry on a trade over these passes by means of *yáks*, goats, and pack-sheep with Takla Khar, in Thibet,—the imports being salt, gold, wools, drugs, precious stones, and Chinese silks; while the exports comprise grain, cotton, hardware, tobacco, sugar, dyes, and other southern produce. The whole valley is also known by the general name of Biáns, and is inhabited by a special class of Bhutiás, speaking a peculiar dialect of their own.

Biás.—One of the five rivers of the Punjab.—*See* BEAS.

Biás.—River rising in the hills of Sírmau in Bhopál State, close by the south-western boundary of Ságár (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; flows in a north-easterly direction, passing, within 10 miles of Ságár, beneath a beautiful iron suspension bridge of 200 feet span, built by Colonel Presgrave in 1832, and falls into the Sonár near Narsinhgarh, in Damoh District.

Bickaneer.—State, Rájputána.—*See* BIKANER.

Bídar (*Bedar*).—Town in the Nizám's Dominions, Haidarábád (Hyderabad), Deccan; situated near the right bank of the Manjera, 75 miles north-west of Haidarábád town. Lat. 17° 53′ N., long. 77° 34′ E. It was the capital of the Báhmani Muhammadan dynasty, which ruled up to the middle of the 16th century. The town is surrounded by an extensive curtain, now much dilapidated, on one of the bastions of which lies an old gun 21 feet long. There is a minaret in the town 100 feet high, and on a plain to the south-west stand many large tombs. The place is noted for the metal ware to which it has given its name. This is an alloy of copper, lead, tin, and zinc, which is worked into articles of very elegant design, inlaid generally with silver, but sometimes also with gold. An interesting account of the manufacture, which is said to be gradually dying out, will be found in *Balfour's Cyclopædia of India*, vol. i. pp. 369, 70.

Bídásir.—Town in Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State, Rájputána; lat. 27° 8′ 50″ N., long. 74° 22′ 15″ E. Captain Powlett, in the *Gazetteer of*

ikaner, says of this place: A number of wealthy Seths live here, iefly Oswáls, of whom there are 150 houses. Of Agarwálás, there e about 20 houses. Perhaps 30 of these are rich men. Bídásir is not place of manufacture or much trade. The bazaar contains about oo shops, and there are 7 or 8 temples and almost as many *chhatris*. airly good water is reached at the depth of about 100 feet below the urface. Inferior sand and lime-stone are obtained in the neighbourood. Post office.

Bidhúna.—North-eastern *tahsil* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 313 square miles, of which 141 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 127,237; land revenue, £24,121; total Government revenue, £25,331; rental paid by cultivators, £40,002; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 4⅞d.

Bidyádharí.—A river in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 21′ to 22° 27′ N., long. 88° 43′ to 88° 50′ E. Flows from the Sundarbans on the east, northwards past Haruá, where it takes the name of the Haruá Gáng; after which it bends to the west, and is joined by the Noná Khál; it then flows south-west to the junction of the Báliághátá and Tolly's canals, and afterwards south-east to Canning town. Here the Karatoyá and the Athárabánká join it, and the united stream passes south through the Sundarbans as the Matlá river, entering the Bay of Bengal under that name. It forms part of both the two channels (known as the Outer and Inner Sundarbans Passages) by which the traffic of Calcutta with the eastern Districts is carried on. Principal river-side villages—Málanchá, Básrá, and Pratápnagar; trade in firewood.

Bihár.—*Parganá* in Partábgarh District, Oudh; situated in the extreme south of the Province. One of the most beautiful and fertile tracts in Oudh; celebrated for its magnificent groves of *mahuá* trees and for the numerous lakes and *jhíls* which stud its surface. Area, 228 square miles, of which 108 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 107,595 Hindus, 11,874 Muhammadans—total, 119,469, viz. 59,913 males and 59,556 females. The proportion of high castes is above the average, the Bráhmans numbering 16,811, and the Kshattriyás 6728. Average density of population, 524 per square mile. Of the 237 villages which make up the *parganá*, 184 are held in *tálukdárí* tenure by four Bisen proprietors, known as the Bhadri, Kundrajit, Dahiáwán, and Shaikhpur Chaurás *tálukdárs*; and the remaining 53 are held under *mufrád* tenure by 480 individuals. Bráhmans hold 4 villages; Káyasths, 8; Raikwárs, only 1; and Bais 2. Muhammadan proprietors own 17 villages, chiefly in the neighbourhood of Mánikpur town. Bihár (*Vihára*) signifies a monastery, and the name usually commemorates the site of one of these Buddhist institutions.

Bihár.—Town in Partábgarh District, Oudh; on the road t

Mánikpur, 29 miles from Bela. Pop. (1869), 4130. Formerly a place of note and wealth, but recently much reduced owing to the turbulence of the *tálukdárs*. Government school.

Bihár.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north and east by Khíron, and on the south and west by Bhagwantnagar *parganá*. First constituted a *parganá* in the reign of Akbar. Two small rivers, the Lon and the Kharhi, flow through this tract, but irrigation is principally conducted from wells. Area, 24 square miles, 11 of which are cultivated; Government land revenue demand, £3964, or an average of 5s. 2⅞d. per acre; pop. (1869), 13,458 Hindus, 423 Muhammadans—total, 13,881, of whom 6749 are males and 7132 females. Bráhmans and Bais Kshattriyás are most numerous among the higher castes, and Ahírs and Chamárs among the lower. Number of villages, 26; average density of population, 578 per square mile. Four roads intersect the *parganá*. Salt and saltpetre were formerly manufactured here, but neither is now worked.

Bihár.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 12 miles east of Purwá, and 28 south-east of Unao, on the road thence to Rái Bareli. The Lon river, west of the town, is spanned by a handsome bridge erected by Government. Scene of a great battle, which took place about 100 years ago between the Ráos of Daundia Khera, and the Rájá of Mauránwán aided by the chief of Sankarpur, all barons of the Bais clan. Pop. (1869), 1899 Hindus, 343 Muhammadans—total, 2242. Two temples, large masonry tank, and school; annual fair, attended by about 5000 persons.

Bihár.—River rising in lat. 24° 15′ N., long. 81° 5′ E., more than 1000 feet above the sea, in Rewah State, Central India, and falling into the Tons in lat. 24° 48′ N., long. 81° 22′ E. At the Chachai Fall, 50 miles from its source, the stream is precipitated over a rock 200 feet high. At Rewah, 20 miles higher up, the route from Allahábád to Ságar (Saugor) crosses it, and it is fordable at this point in dry weather.

Bihat.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency, lying between 25° 21′ and 25° 26′ 15″ N. lat., and between 79° 22′ 30″ and 79° 27′ E. long.; area, about 15 square miles; estimated population (1875), 5000; estimated revenue, £1300. The Jágírdár of Bihat is a Hindu Bundela, named Ráo Mahum Sinh; he holds a *sanad* of adoption. A military force of 125 foot soldiers is kept up.

Bihat.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; 12 miles south-east of Sítápur town. Pop. (1869), 2058, principally Hindus; residing in 358 houses. Noted for the excellence of its ironwork.

Bihiyá (*Beheea*).—Village in Sháhábád District, Bengal. A large station on the East Indian Railway, with considerable local trade; 14 miles from Arrah town, and 382 from Calcutta.

Bihiyá.—A branch canal of the Són irrigation system, branching from the twenty-seventh milepost of the Arrah Canal, and extending to a small water-course connected with the Ganges, near Bihiyá village, a distance of 30½ miles. It has 7 distributary channels, which again have small cuts or trenches leading in all directions to convey the water over the fields.

Bihora.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, three-quarters of a square mile; estimated revenue (1875), £80, of which £5 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is named Ráhtor Sardárbháwa.

Bíja.—One of the Hill States, in political connection with the Punjab Government. Lat. (centre) 30° 56′ N., long. 77° 2′ E.; area, 4 square miles; estimated population (1875), 800. The chief or Thákur holds his lands under a *sanad* in the usual terms, being confirmed in all his rights on condition of his paying tribute to defray the expenses of British protection, promoting the welfare of the *rayats* and the cultivation of the land, and maintaining the security of the roads. The present Thákur is named Udái Chánd, of Rájput caste. He receives £10 a year as compensation for lands required for Kasauli cantonment. Revenue of the State, £100; military and police, 20 men.

Bijaigarh.—Ruined fort in Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 24° 34′ 38″ N., long. 83° 13′ 35″ E. Perched on the summit of a wooded height, 9 miles north of river Són, and 50 miles south of Benares. In the autumn of 1781, Cháit Sinh, the rebellious Rájá of Benares, took refuge in this fort, but on the advance of Major Popham, fled precipitately with all the treasure he could remove. His wife and mother, who remained, defended the fortress for a time, but finally surrendered to the British.

Bijáigarh.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 41 acres; pop. (1872), 5652, comprising 5228 Hindus and 424 Musalmáns. Agricultural town, advancing in prosperity. School, post office, ancient fort. Held in 1803 by Bhagwant Sinh, who was not dislodged without trouble. Monument to Colonel Gordon, killed by an accidental explosion after the capture of the fort. Distant 12 miles from Alígarh, 10 miles from Sikandra.

Bijápur (*Vijayapura*).—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Kaládgi District, Bombay. Lat. 16° 49′ 45″ N., long. 75° 46′ 5″ E. Fifty-two miles north-east of Kaládgi, 130 miles south-east of Satara, and 160 miles south-east of Poona. Population in 1872, 12,938; municipal revenue in 1874-75, £168; rate of taxation, 3d. per head of population within municipal limits. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

The founder of the Musalmán State of Bijápur was, according to Ferishta, a son of Murad II., the Osmanli Sultán, on whose death his

son and successor, Muhammad II., gave orders that all his own brothers should be strangled. From this fate one only, named Yusaf, escaped by a stratagem of his mother. After many adventures, Yusaf is said to have entered the service of the King of Ahmedábád-Bídar, where he raised himself to the highest offices of State. On the king's death, he withdrew from Ahmedábád to Bijápur, and declared himself its king, the people at the same time acknowledging his claim. Yusaf reigned with great prosperity, and, extending his dominions westward to the sea-coast, took Goa from the Portuguese. His resources must have been considerable, as he built the vast citadel of Bijápur. He died in 1510, and was succeeded by his son Ismáil, who died in 1534, after a brilliant and prosperous reign. Mulu Adil Sháh having been deposed and blinded, after a disastrous and inglorious reign of only six months, made way for his younger brother Ibráhim, a profligate man, who died in 1557, and was succeeded by his son Alí Adil Sháh. This ruler joined the kings of Ahmednagar and Golconda against Rájá Rám, the sovereign of Vijayanagar, and, with the exception of the Emperor of Delhi, the greatest potentate in India. Rájá Rám was defeated in 1564 in a great battle at Tálikot on the river Kistna, and, being made prisoner, was put to death in cold blood, and his capital taken and sacked. The wall of Bijápur, the Jamá Masjíd, or great mosque, the aqueducts, and other works, were constructed by Alí Adil Sháh, who died in 1579. The throne then passed to his nephew, Ibráhim Adil II., an infant, whose affairs were managed by Chánd Bíbí, widow of the late king, a woman celebrated for her talents and energy. On Ibráhim assuming the government, he ruled with ability; and, dying in 1626, after a reign of forty-seven years, was succeeded by Muhammad Adil Sháh, under whose reign Sivají, the founder of the Marhattá power, rose into notice. Sháhjí, the father of Sivají, had been an officer in the service of the King of Bijápur; and the first aggressions of Sivají were made at the expense of that State, from which, in the interval between 1646 and 1648, he wrested several forts. Soon afterwards he took possession of the greater part of the Konkan. Muhammad, however, had a more formidable enemy in the Mughal Emperor, Sháh Jahán, whose son and general, Aurangzeb, besieged the city of Bijápur, and was on the point of taking it, when he precipitately marched to Agra, whither he was drawn by intelligence of court intrigues, which he feared might end in his own destruction. After his departure the power of Sivají rapidly increased, and that of he King of Bijápur proportionately declined. Muhammad died in 660, and was succeeded by Alí Adil II., who, on his decease in 1672, eft the kingdom, then fast descending to ruin, to his infant son, ikandar Adil Sháh, the last of the race who occupied the throne. In 686, Aurangzeb took Bijápur, and put an end to its existence as an

dependent State. Those vast and wonderful ruins passed, with the djoining territory, to the Marhattás during the decline of the Delhi mpire. On the overthrow of the Peshwá, in 1818, they came into the ands of the British Government, and were included within the erritory assigned to the Rájá of Satára, who manifested much anxiety or the preservation of the splendid remains of Muhammadan grandeur n Bijápur, and adopted measures for their repair. Since the escheat of Satára in 1848 from failure of heirs, the Bombay Government has acted in the same spirit, having taken measures, with the approbation of the authorities in England, for arresting the further progress of dilapidation in the buildings, as well as for collecting and preserving the relics of manuscripts, coins, copper-plate inscriptions, and other curious and interesting memorials of the past. For a detailed description of the numerous architectural works found in Bijápur, the reader is referred to the admirable account given by Fergusson in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, pp. 557-567.

Bijáwar.—Native State in Bundelkhand, Central India, lying between 24° 21′ 30″ and 24° 57′ N. lat., and between 79° 1′ 45″ and 79° 57′ E. long.; estimated area, 920 square miles; pop. (1874), 90,000; revenue, £22,500. The land is poor and hilly, yielding only jungle produce and the poorer kinds of grain. Diamonds are found, and ironstone is plentiful throughout the State. The title of the Rájá, Bháu Pratáp Sinh, a Bundela Rájput, results from his descent from Bír Sinh Deo, a natural son of Jagat Ráj, son of Chhatar Sál, the founder of the short-lived independence of Bundelkhand. After the acquisition of Bundelkhand by the East India Company, a grant was made in 1811, confirming the right of Ratan Sinh, then Rájá, from whom the estate has descended to its present chief.

A *sanad* granting the right of adoption was given to the Rájá of Bijáwar in 1862; and, for services during the Mutiny, he received for himself and his heirs a dress of honour and a salute of 11 guns. The State pays no tribute, but keeps up a contingent of 100 horse, with 800 infantry, 4 guns, and 32 gunners. The principal town is Bijáwar, situated in lat. 24° 37′ N., long. 79° 31′ E.

Bijaya.—Pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras, leading from Parvatipur to Jáipur (Jeypore). The head of the pass rises to 3000 feet above the sea, the average gradient being 1 in 20.

Bijayanagar.—Ruined city in Bellary District, Madras.—*See* HAMPI.

Bijbahár (or *Vijipára*).—Town in Kashmir State, Punjab, lying on the banks of the Jhelum (Jhílam), about 25 miles south-east of Srínagar. Lat. 33° 47′ N., long. 75° 13′ E. Second city in importance and population of the Kashmir valley. Thornton notices its singular wooden bridge and large *bázár*, but states that the town contains nothing else worthy of special record.

Bíjbání.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 51′ 30″ N., long. 85° 10′ E.; pop. (1872), 5920. Market twice a week.

Bijegarh.—Town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BIJAIGARH.

Bijerághogarh.—Tract of country in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 43′ 45″ and 24° 8′ N. lat., and between 80° 23′ 30″ and 81° E. long. Bounded north by Máihár State, east by Rewah, and west by the Sleemanábád *tahsíl* and Panná. Pop. about 70,000; area, about 750 square miles. Formerly a protected chiefship belonging to a branch of the family which owns Maihar, but confiscated on account of excesses committed by the chief in 1857. Chiefly agricultural, but there is some fine timber in the portion preserved as a Government forest.

Bijipúr.—One of the seven Khond *muttás* of Vizagapatam District, Madras. Formerly proscribed by the Meriah Agency as addicted to human sacrifice. It consists of 9 villages, and forms part of the Godairi *táluk*, being separated from Ponkala by a dense *sál* jungle 9 miles in extent.

Bijjí.—Chiefship in Bastar State, Central Provinces; situated between 17° 46′ and 18° 23′ 15″ N. lat., and between 80° 58′ and 81° 34′ E. long. Consisting of about 150 small villages; area, about 850 square miles. Its teak forests, though greatly overworked, still supply timber for export, which is dragged either to the Godávari at Parnsála, or the Sabári at Kuntá, and floated down to the sea.

Bijlí.—Chiefship on the north-east border of Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1870), 8704; number of villages, 48; area, 140 square miles, of which 21 are cultivated. The forests produce much valuable timber. One of the main District roads to Ráipur passes through this chiefship, leaving it by Darekása Pass, which has lately been repaired. The hills near the pass contain some curious caves, partly artificial, called Kachagarh, or 'forts of safety.' The difficulty of approach through the dense bamboo jungle, and the advantage of a spring of water close by, justify the name. Just below the pass the Kuardás stream falls from a height of about 50 feet into a large pool of very deep water. The Banjáras make this picturesque spot a favourite camping ground.

Bijna.—One of the Hasht-Bhái *jágírs* in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Area, 27 square miles, much subdivided; estimated population (1874), 3000; revenue, £800. There are 4 of these *jágírs*—Dhurwái, Bijna, Tori Fatehpur, and Pahári Bánká. They originally belonged to the Orchha or Tehri State, and were called Hasht-Bhái because the Diwán Rái Sinh divided his *jágír* of Barágaon among his eight sons, and these shares have now become merged into four. The present *jágírdár* is Makund Sinh, a

Hindu Bundela. The four *jágírdárs* keep up a total military force of 15 guns, 50 horse, and 530 foot.

Bijná.—Town in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 27′ 10″ N., long. 79° 5′ 15″ E. The principal place in the State of the same name. Situated on the route from Bánda to Jhánsi, 95 miles west of former, 40 east of latter.

Bijnaur (*Bijnor*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 1′ 30″ and 30° 2′ 45″ N. lat., and between 78° 2′ and 79° E. long.; area, 1902 square miles; population in 1872, 737,153 souls. Bijnor is the northernmost District of the Rohilkhand Division, and is bounded on the north and west by the Ganges, on the south by Moradábád, and on the east by the *tarái* and British Garhwál. The administrative headquarters are at the town of Bijnaur.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Bijnaur, an irregular triangle, whose apex points directly northward, forms the uppermost portion of the Rohilkhand plain, stretching like a narrow wedge between the valley of the Ganges and the hills of British Garhwál. Its eastern boundary consists of the low outer Himálayan range, which subsides into a submontane tract as it reaches the borders of the District, while on the north a system of small elevations, known as the Chándí Hills, projects across the Ganges, as an outlier of the Siwálik range in Dehra Dún. Their barren, rugged, and waterless slopes afford no inducements for cultivation, and they remain accordingly quite without inhabitants to the present day. The submontane eastern tract is covered with a belt of forest, interspersed from time to time with open glades of grass, which supply rich pasturage for numerous herds of cattle from all parts of the District. No *tarái* or marshy fringe intervenes in Bijnaur, as in the country to the east, between this forest region and the cultivated plain. The whole of the south and west consists of an open upland, with a general elevation of 800 feet above sea level, covered throughout with prosperous tillage. The soil of this higher plateau always contains sand, in varying proportions, but seldom to such an extent as to render the land uncultivable. The Ganges bank is lined by a strip of alluvial lowland, the wider valley of the sacred river, much of which lies too low for cultivation, while the remainder produces excellent crops of rice. This swampy portion, however, continually decreases from year to year, and most of the lowland is now available for purposes of agriculture. Numerous minor streams intersect the country between the hills and the Ganges, forming furious torrents in the rainy season, and shrinking into narrow threads of water after long continued drought. The Chándí Hills and the forest belt give shelter to numberless wild animals, while the comparative seclusion of the eastern country secures excellent sport to occasional visitors. Th

fauna includes the tiger and the wild elephant, besides the usual game, birds, and fish. The proximity of the Ganges and the hills, together with the large forest area, keep the climate comparatively moist, and impart a pleasant greenness to the open plains.

History.—Bijnaur can lay little claim to historical importance, as it remained a mere distant portion of the Rohillá dominion until the extinction of their authority by the Oudh Wazirs, and never bore a conspicuous part in the annals of Upper India. Nevertheless, it makes an early appearance in literature, since Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century A.D., mentions Mandáwar, 8 miles north of Bijnaur, as, even at that date, a flourishing city. About the year 1114, some Agarwálá Banias, from Murári in Meerut District, crossed the Ganges into this tract, and, finding Mandáwar in ruins, restored it and settled on the spot. In 1400, Timur visited Bijnaur, committing his usual atrocities; massacred a large number of the inhabitants, and gained a decisive victory in a battle near Lál Dhang. Thence he marched to Hardwár, and crossed into the Doáb. We hear no more of the District till the time of Akbar, when it formed part of the *Sarkár* of Sambhal in the *Subah* of Delhi. Most of the existing fiscal Subdivisions may be found in Akbar's great revenue list under the names which they still retain. The larger part of the soil had already been brought under cultivation, and the considerable income which it afforded to the Mughal emperors sufficiently proves its rising prosperity. During the Augustan age of the Delhi empire, Bijnaur seems to have shared in the general freedom from historical incidents, which was the happy lot of regions remote from court intrigue and dynastic quarrels. But as the power of the Mughals relaxed, the Rohillá Afgháns appeared upon the scene in Upper India, and settled in the tract to the east of the Ganges about the year 1700. (*See* BAREILLY DISTRICT.) Their first great leader, Alí Muhammad, received a grant of the neighbouring country, which bore thenceforth the name of Rohilkhand. The Subahdár of Oudh quarrelled with the new Nawáb, and induced the Emperor Muhammad Sháh to march against him. Alí Muhammad surrendered to the Emperor, gained the favour of his suzerain, and was reinstated in his government about the year 1748. On his death he left his territories to his sons, under the guardianship of Háfiz Ráhmat Khán, the national hero of Rohillá legend. In 1771, the Marhattás, having placed the puppet Emperor Sháh Alam on the throne of Delhi, turned their attention to the subjugation of Rohilkhand. The Rohillás sought assistance from the Nawáb of Oudh in 1772, but the Nawáb betrayed their trust, and, borrowing troops from the British and the emperor, attacked and subjugated Rohilkhand in a merciless campaign. The treaty by which the Rohillás ceded their territory to the Wazír, with the exception of the RAMPUR

STATE, reserved for Fáiz-ullá Khán, a son of Alí Muhammad, was concluded at Lál Dhang in this District in 1774. This incident forms almost the only allusion to Bijnaur which can be gleaned from the scanty Rohillá and Patháan narratives; but the District doubtless shared in the general good government of Rohilkhand during its independent period, while, from its northern position, it probably escaped in great part the desolating effects of the war of subjugation. The large number of considerable Musalmán towns, and the general high state of cultivation, both point to long-continued prosperity in this isolated nook. Bijnaur was ceded to the British, with the neighbouring southern country, in 1801. Up till 1817, it formed a part of Moradabad District, being known as the Northern Division, but in that year it was erected into a separate charge. The administrative headquarters were originally fixed at Nagína, the largest town of the District, but were removed to Bijnaur in 1824, both on account of its superior sanitary conditions and its proximity to the important military station at Meerut. The only event of note between the British occupation and the Mutiny was the defeat of Amír Khán of Tonk, near Afzalgarh, in 1803, by the British troops, under Colonel Skinner, founder of the well-known landowning family. The first news of the Meerut outbreak reached Bijnaur on May 13, 1857. The Roorkee sappers then mutinied and reached Bijnor on the 19th, but they passed on without creating any disturbance, and the District remained quiet till the 1st of June. On that date, the Nawáb of Najíbábád appeared at Bijnaur with 200 armed Patháns. On the 8th, after the outbreaks at Bareilly and Moradábád, the European officers quitted Bijnaur, and reached Rurkí (Roorkee) on the 11th. The Nawáb at once proclaimed himself as ruler, and remained in power till the 6th of August, when the Hindus of the District rose against the Musalmán authority and defeated him for the time. On the 24th, the Muhammadans returned in force and drove out the Hindus. The latter attacked their conquerors again on the 18th of September, but without success, and the Nawáb ruled unopposed until the 17th of April 1858. Our troops then crossed the Ganges, and utterly defeated the rebels at Nagína on the 21st. The British authority was immediately re-established, and has not since been disturbed.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total population o Bijnaur at 695,521 persons. In 1865, the numbers had sunk to 690,975 showing an apparent decrease of 4546 persons, or ·63 per cent.; bu this falling off is merely nominal, as the area had lost ·95 per cent. in th meantime, so that a slight increase had actually occurred on the remain ing territory. In 1872, the numbers were returned as 737,153 soul showing an increase of 46,178 persons, or 6·6 per cent. on the Cens of 1865. The enumeration in 1872 was taken over an area of 19 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 737,153 perso

inhabiting 2002 villages and 158,583 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 388; villages per square mile, 1·06; houses per square mile, 83; persons per village, 368; persons per house, 4·6. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 395,396; females, 341,757; proportion of males, 53·6 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 137,757; females, 113,186; total, 250,943, or 34·04 per cent. of the whole population: above 12 years—males, 257,639; females, 228,571; total, 486,210, or 65·96 per cent. of the whole population. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Bijnaur is noticeable for the large proportion of its Musalmán inhabitants. The Census shows 493,601 Hindus, as against 243,455 Muhammadans, being at the rate of 67 and 33 per cent. respectively. The unusual number of Musalmáns is doubtless due to the thick sprinkling of considerable towns, whose population consists in great part of Shaikhs, Sayyids, and Patháns. The District also contained 96 Christians or 'others' at the date of the Census. Of the various Hindu castes, the Bráhmans numbered 28,789; Rájputs, 66,693; Banias, 17,114; Ahírs, 5069; Chamárs, or landless agriculturists, just emerging from serfdom, 116,910; and Káyasths, 3542. The total agricultural population was returned at 280,568 persons; but these figures cannot be accepted as adequate. The District contains no fewer than 13 towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely, BIJNAUR, 12,865; NAJIBABAD, 17,418; SHERKOT, 12,586; CHANDPUR, 12,033; NAGINA, 19,696; SIOHARA, 8340; SAHISPUR, 6309; DHAMPUR, 6555; MANDAWAR, 7662; AFZALGARH, 8350; NIHTOR, 9392; JAHALU, 5979; and KIRATPUR, 9579. The high proportion of their Muhammadan inhabitants may be seen by comparing the statistics for the five towns whose populations exceed 10,000 souls. The following list shows the number of Hindus to each 100 Musalmáns in these towns:—Bijnaur, 99; Najíbábád, 119; Sherkot, 46; Chándpur, 39; Nagína, 62. The proportion of Hindus is thus in one case scarcely more than one-fourth of the whole population. The only other places of interest in the District are the Rohillá fortress of Pathargarh, a mile north-east of Najíbábád, now fast falling into ruins; and the remains of an ancient city, some 6 miles in extent, at Parasnáth, near Nagína, where a few foundations and some carved stone figures alone mark the deserted site.

Agriculture.—The character of the soil, and the system of tillage in Bijnor, do not materially differ from those prevalent throughout the whole upper basin of the Ganges and its tributaries. Here and there, especially in the south-western corner of the District, undulating sand-hills overlie the fertile soil, composed of materials which originally shifted from time to time before the prevailing westerly winds, but which have now become fixed in position and bound together by coarse

vegetation. Most of them produce barley and other inferior crops in years of favourable rain. The open plain country is divided into *bangár* or upland, and *khádir* or lowland. The latter lies along the river-sides; and its soil is always composed of clay, but intermixed with sufficient sand for agricultural purposes. Of the cultivated area, 36 per cent. is *khádir* and 64 per cent. *bangár*. Besides the alluvial border of the Ganges, the rivers Málin, Kho, and Rámganga are all fringed with a fertile strip of valuable lowland. The total area under cultivation amounts to 627,384 acres. Of this total, the *kharíf* or autumn harvest, sown in June or July, and reaped in October or November, occupies some 391,840 acres, or 62·4 per cent. Its principal staples include—sugar-cane, 43,882 acres (besides an equal amount under fallow for the same crop); cotton, 46,388 acres; coarse rices, 133,078 acres; fine rices, 12,023 acres; *bájra*, 45,291 acres; *urd*, 25,254 acres; and *moth*, 13,306 acres; together with minor quantities of oil-seeds, dye-stuffs, and coarse grains. The *rabí* or spring harvest, sown in October or November, and reaped in March and April, covers 213,746 acres, or 34·1 per cent. Its chief crops include—wheat, 113,599 acres; barley, 29,738 acres; gram, 21,527 acres; wheat and barley, mixed, 29,166 acres; vegetables, opium, tobacco, and safflower, 4351 acres; together with minor quantities of pulses, oil-seeds, and common food-stuffs. The small margin of 21,798 acres, or 3·5 per cent., represents the fallow of the year. Wheat, rice, cotton, and sugar-cane form the most important products. The mode of cultivation is simple, and the implements in use hardly differ from those of the Vaidik age. The tenures belong to the three classes common to the whole North-Western Provinces; but the *zamíndárí* holdings form 79 per cent. of all the estates, whilst among these more than half belong to single owners, chiefly the great *tálukdárs* of Sherkot, Tájpur, Haldaur, and Sáhaspur. The agricultural population includes the large mass of the inhabitants, as nearly all the weavers, barbers, blacksmiths, and carpenters cultivate land, and live quite as much by tillage as by their proper handicraft. The artisan class are fairly prosperous, judged by an Indian standard, but the purely agricultural labourers are deeply in debt and very helpless. Wages and prices are on the increase. In 1877, coolies and unskilled labourers received from 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural hands, from 2¼d. to 3d.; and skilled artisans, from 6d. to 2s. Women obtained about one-fifth less than men, and children from one-half to one-third the wages of adults. Prices of food-stuffs ruled as follows in 1876: Wheat, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; rice, 14 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. per cwt.; *joár*, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.; and *bájra*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Bijnaur suffers, like other North-Western D

tricts, from drought and its natural consequence, famine. Indeed, as its dense population depends largely for support upon imported grain, even during the most favourable years, it would be very disastrously affected by dry seasons, were it not for the unusual moisture of the soil, due to its submontane position. The great famine of 1783-84 was felt in Bijnaur, as in all other parts of the North-Western Provinces, but it did not produce such serious distress as in Agra and the south-west. In 1803-4, after the cession of Rohilkhand to the British, another severe famine occurred; failure of rain took place at the time for sowing the autumn crops; no grain could be imported from westward; and by February 1804 discord was rife, the cultivators removed their crops as fast as they ripened, and the landholders absconded in every direction. In 1825-26, serious drought set in, and the resulting scarcity rose to a dangerous pitch, as the *zamíndárs* refused to permit sowings, on account of the approaching land settlement. In 1837, again, the memorable famine which desolated the North-West, fell upon the neighbouring parts of Upper India with great severity; but Rohilkhand and the Upper Doáb escaped with less misery than the southern Districts, while a timely rain, in February 1838, rescued Bijnaur and Moradábád from distress, and enabled them to reap an average crop. In 1860-61, only three-tenths of the District suffered; and in 1868-69, the famine, though felt over the whole area, did not produce any markedly disastrous result. The insufficient communications of this District would doubtless present a real element of danger in any future droughts or famines.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Sugar is the great commercial staple of the District, the Bijnaur manufacture fetching higher prices in the market than any other Indian brand. On the other hand, the District is incapable of supplying itself with food-stuffs, as much as 24 per cent. of its grain being imported from without in ordinary years. Gram is also largely imported as fodder, while 60,000 *maunds* of salt come annually into the District from Rohtak and Delhi. The chief manufactures are Bráhmanical threads (*janeo*) from Bijnaur; papier-maché from Mandáwar; metal-work, blankets, cotton, and shoes from Najíbábád; and carved ebony, glassware, ropes, and firearms from Nagína. Bijnaur has only 15 miles of metalled road, as no stone suitable for the purpose exists within the District, and even for this short distance the metal must be brought from Muzaffarnagar. There are 189 miles of raised and bridged roads, with 335 miles of cross-country tracks; but many of these are in a bad state, and no really good means of communication exist within the District. Traffic meets with a serious impediment on its way to the markets of the Doáb, from the interposition of the Ganges, with its heavy sand, and almost impassable alluvial fringe. The timber trade from the Bhábar forests to the Districts beyond the

river proceeds by two principal routes over the Jalálpur and Raoli *gháts*. The Ganges is practicable for country boats as far as Nágal, 20 miles south of Hardwár, but none of the other rivers admit of navigation.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a collector-magistrate, 1 joint and 1 assistant magistrate, and 1 uncovenanted deputy magistrate, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. The judicial administration is presided over by the civil and sessions judge of Moradábád, but *munsifs* are stationed at Bijnor and Nagína. The whole amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised in the District in 1876, was £163,650, being at the rate of 4s. 2¼d. per head on an estimated population of 766,638. The land revenue was fixed by the settlement completed in 1874 at £118,302, thus contributing nearly three-fourths of the whole amount. In 1875, the regular police force consisted of 667 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £7650. The District had accordingly 1 policeman to every 2·8 square miles and to every 1090 of the population, while the expense of their maintenance fell at the rate of £4, 0s. 4¾d. per square mile of area, and 2½d. per inhabitant. The District jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 158 prisoners, comprising 151 males and 7 females. The cost per inmate amounted to £4, 3s. 9½d., and the average earnings of each convict to 18s. Education was carried on in 1875 by 447 schools, with a joint roll of 9291 pupils; showing an average of 1 school to every 4·25 square miles, and a percentage of 1·26 scholar on the whole population. The American Methodist Episcopalian Mission maintain some aided schools. The District contains 15 imperial and 10 local post offices; no telegraph or railway yet exists, but the projected line from Moradábád to Hardwár would cut through the heart of Bijnaur. For fiscal and administrative purposes Bijnaur is divided into 5 *tahsíls* and 15 *parganás*, containing a total of 3140 estates; average land revenue from each estate, £37, 19s. 10d. Municipalities have been established at the five towns of Bijnaur, Chándpur, Dhámpur, Nagína, and Najíbábád. In 1875-76, their joint income amounted to £6010, and their united expenditure to £5128. The incidence of municipal taxation (£3976) was at the rate of 1s. 1⅜d. per head of their population (71,006 souls).

Medical Aspects.—The chief endemic diseases of Bijnaur comprise intermittent fevers, dysentery, and bowel complaints. Ophthalmia also causes much trouble, and small-pox not infrequently occurs. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1875 was 18,177, or 24·65 per 1000 of the population. The average death-rate for the preceding six years was 22·19 per 1000. During the same year, the District contained 3 charitable dispensaries, at which 9543 persons obtained relief. A fourth has since been opened at Sherkot. The climate, on the whole

may be considered pleasant and healthy. The average yearly rainfall for the 14 years from 1859 to 1873 was 42·8 inches. The maximum during this period was 56·9 inches in 1871-72, and the minimum 23·1 inches in 1860-61.

Bijnaur.—*Tahsíl* of Bijnaur District, North-Western Provinces, lying around the headquarters station. Area, 304 square miles, of which 219 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 132,035; land revenue, £22,125; total revenue, £24,355; rental paid by cultivators, £49,701; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 3¼d.

Bijnaur.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Bijnaur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 22′ 36″ N., long. 78° 10′ 32″ E.; area, 179 acres; pop. (1872), 12,865, of whom more than one-half are Musalmáns. Lies on the open plain, 3 miles east of the Ganges. No buildings of any importance, chiefly noteworthy as the headquarters of the Játs. Centre of local trade in sugar, for which Bijnor has a high reputation; manufacture of Bráhmanical threads and cotton cloth. Occupied during the Mutiny by rebel Nawáb of Najíbábád (*see* BIJNOR DISTRICT). Post office, dispensary, American Methodist Mission. Great bathing fair at Dáranagar, on the Ganges, 6 miles south, in November; lasts five days, and attracts 40,000 pilgrims. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1220; from taxes, £724, or 1s. 1¼d. per head of population (13,066) within municipal limits.

Bijnaur.—*Parganá* in Lucknow District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Lucknow and Kákori *parganás*, on the east by those of Mohanlálganj and Sisáindi, and on the south and west by Unao District. A bare and desolate tract, owing to the extent of uncultivable tracts impregnated with saline efflorescence (*usar*). Around the villages, however, the cultivation is very fair, all the ordinary cereals and pulses being grown. Area, 148 square miles, of which only 67 are cultivated, and, owing to the reason stated above, probably the limit of cultivation has been reached. The average incidence of the Government land revenue demand is at the rate of 2s. per acre of total area, 2s. 7½d. per acre of assessed area, and 4s. 6d. per acre of cultivated area. The average rate of rent paid by ordinary cultivators varies from 8s. 6d. to 10s. 6d. per acre, the average size of a husbandman's holding being 3⅓ acres. Of the 102 villages or towns which make up the *parganá*, nearly one-half are held by Chauhán Rájputs, 10 by Bráhmans, and the remainder by Muhammadans. The total number of separate estates is 111, the chief tenure being *zamíndárí*. Population in 1869—Hindus, 62,887; Muhammadans, 4466; total, 67,353, viz. 35,877 males and 31,476 females; average density of population, 455 per square mile. One metalled and two unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*, as also the Lucknow and Cawnpore Railway, with a station at Haráuni. Police station at

Bánthra, with outpost station at Báni bridge on the Sái. Government schools in 6 villages.

Bijnaur.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; 8 miles south of Lucknow city, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road. Lat. 26° 56′ N., long. 80° 84′ E. Said to have been founded by, and to have taken its name from, Bijlí Rájá, a Pásí, who built the great fort of Nathawán, a mile to the north of the town, and was probably driven out by the first Musalmán invaders. During Muhammadan rule, the town was the headquarters from which the *parganá* of the same name was administered, and a place of considerable trade. At the present day it has sunk into a quiet agricultural village, with a few brick houses, the residences of some of the decayed Musalmán gentry. Pop. (1869), 2394 Hindus, 1376 Muhammadans—total, 3770. Once celebrated for its fine cotton cloths, but the manufacture has now greatly fallen off, under the competition of English piece-goods. Government school. Just outside the town on the south are the ruins of the old fort, where the Government officials used to reside; and on the west are extensive remains of brick tombs, built over the Muhammadans who fell at the time of the conquest of the country.

Bijni.—One of the Eastern Dwárs attached to Goálpára District, Assam. Area, 374·19 square miles; pop. (1870), 18,837. Only 35·94 square miles are under cultivation, and 12·56 square miles have been declared as 'forest reserves.' The Rájá of Bijni claims descent from the royal family of Kuch Behar. Besides being the farmer under Government of Bijni Dwár, he is also *zamíndár* of the two *parganás* of Khuntágháht and Hábrágháht in the permanently settled portion of Goálpára District, with an area of about 1000 square miles. The estate has recently been administered under the Court of Wards during the minority of the Rájá. The average annual rental was found to be £12,160, while the Government revenue is only £235. An accumulated surplus of £79,047 was handed over to the young Rájá when he came of age.

Bijni.—Largest village in the Dwár of the same name, forming one of the Eastern Dwárs attached to Goálpára District, Assam; on the north bank of the Dalání river, which is here crossed by a ferry. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 90° 47′ 40″ E. There is a small *bázár*. Two native preachers of the Church Missionary Society have recently been stationed here.

Bíkaner (*Bickaneer*). — State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India; lying between 27° 32′ and 29° 57′ N. lat., and between 72° 30′ and 75° 50′ E. long. The area is variously estimated at from 17,676 to 23,000 square miles; but these can only be inferences from maps

founded on points chiefly outside the limits, as the greater portion of the country is unsurveyed. Bickaneer is bounded on the north-west by Baháwalpur, a Muhammadan State; on the north by British territory; on the east by Jáipur (Jeypore); on the south and south-west by Jodhpur and Jaisalmír (Jeysulmere). The southern and most of the north-eastern portions of the State form part of the vast sandy tract known as the Bágar, comprising also Márwár and the north of Jáipur. The north-west and part of the north lie within the Great Indian Desert; and the north-east corner, adjoining Sirsa, is the least unfertile section of the State, being in favourable years flooded by the Sotra. The only rocky hills in the State are at the borders of Jeypore and Jodhpur, and even these are not more than 500 feet above the level of the plain. From the city of Bíkaner south-west to the Jeysulmere border the country is hard and stony; but throughout the greater part of the territory the plain is undulating or interspersed with shifting sandhills, whose slopes, lightly furrowed from the action of the wind, suggest the ribbed appearance of the sea-shore. Generally speaking, the villages are far apart, and though grass and jungle bushes abound, the aspect of the country is dreary and desolate in the extreme.

The Bíkaner country contains no rivers or streams. In the rainy season, a *nálá* sometimes flows from Shaikhawáti over the eastern border, but is soon lost in the sands. The Kagar, called also the Sotra or Hakna in the Punjab, once flowed through the northern part of the present Bíkaner territory, but it is now dry, and wells are dug in its bed, where it is said the only sweet water in that region is to be found. During the rains, however, it sometimes contains water for a few miles of its course; and the Tibí *parganá* is greatly benefited by it. Some water of the Western Jumna Canal occasionally enters the State west of Hissár. Two little fresh-water lakelets, formed by the drainage of the rocky country south-west of Bickaneer, lie on the route from Bíkaner to Jáisalmir. The lake of Chápar in the Sujangarh district is the principal source of the salt supply of Bíkaner; it is about 6 miles long by 2 miles wide, but it is very shallow, and almost dries up before the hot weather begins. There is another salt lake about 40 miles north-east of Bíkaner. The salt produced from these lakes is of inferior quality, valued at about half the price of Sámbhar salt. It is only consumed by the poor, or used for curing skins and other antiseptic purposes.

Water in Bíkaner is found, notwithstanding the slight apparent difference in the level of the country, at very varying depths, and is of very unequal quality. Thus, the city wells are more than 300 feet deep, but the water of most is of excellent quality, while 10 or 12 miles to the north and north-west water is found within 20 feet of the surface; but frequently there is not above 3 feet of sweet water,—an inch too far

and the stratum of pernicious water is tapped, thus spoiling the well for all practical purposes. The people of the country depend a good deal upon rain-water, the drainage of the neighbourhood being collected either in covered pits, called *kunds*, or in simpler excavations. During the hot season the scarcity of water often causes great suffering. Travellers are sometimes found dead on the road for want of it.

Bíkaner suffers from extremes of heat and cold. During the hot season, the heat is exceedingly great; heavy sandstorms are of frequent occurrence, and the sun is so powerful that even the natives of the country fear to travel in the middle of the day. In winter, the cold is generally very severe, trees and vegetation being injured by the frost.

Lime is abundant in many parts of the State, especially in the neighbourhood of the city of Bíkaner and the town of Sujangarh. Red sandstone is quarried at Khárí, 30 miles north-east, and is also found in smaller quantities west of Bíkaner. The Khárí quarry supplies the building materials used for ornamenting all works of importance in the city. Fuller's earth, quarried in large quantities about 30 miles to the south-west, is used as soap, and for dyeing cloth. Copper was formerly extracted from a hill near Bídásir, in the Sujangarh district, 70 miles east of the city; but the mine has not been worked for many years.

The staple crops are *bájra* (Holcus spicatus) and *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius). Water-melons and *kúkris* (a coarse kind of melon) are also grown. Bíkaner abounds in the best cattle-grasses; indeed, the whole country may be said to be a pasture ground. The domestic animals are finer and more serviceable than those of any other part of India; the horses are strong and wiry; the cattle and buffaloes are equally famous. The State was formerly renowned for its riding camels, but they have deteriorated of late years. The principal manufactures are blankets and sweetmeats; the exports, in addition to these, are wool, soda, fuller's earth, grain, leathern water-bags, and ivory bracelets ornamented with gold, which are in great demand throughout Rájputána.

The total population of the State was estimated by Major Powlett in 1874 as not less than 300,000. He endeavoured to obtain a regular Census, but the results are not trustworthy. The number of villages is said to be 1797, but villages in Bíkaner are so frequently abandoned and repopulated that the number existing at any given time can never be precisely ascertained. The most numerous castes are Játs, numbering about 50,000, all agriculturists; Baniás or traders, about 30,000, some of whom cultivate the soil; Rájputs, about 12,000, three-fourths of the number being cultivators; and Bráhmans, about 20,000, also mostly cultivators. Spare land being very plentiful, the holdings are large, and there is no struggle for shares, as in adjoining British territory. The proprietary right in land throughout Bickaneer belongs

as a rule, to the State. The cultivator's right of occupancy is supposed to depend on his ability to meet the State demands. The yearly revenues of the Mahárájá amounted in 1875 to about £10,000, collected in the form of land tax, customs, fines, civil court fees, and minor items. The ruling family of Bickaneer is of the Ráhtor tribe of Rájputs. The State was founded by Bíka, sixth son of Jodhath Ráo of Márwár, and founder of Jodhpur, in A.D. 1439. The first contact of the British Government with Bíkaner State occurred in 1808, when Mr. Elphinstone, the British Envoy, passing through on his way towards Kábul, was treated with great respect by the Mahárájá. In 1818, the country being overrun by the Pindáris, supported by rebellious nobles, British troops, in accordance with a treaty then made, entered the territory and suppressed the insurgents. Twelve forts in all were taken by the British, and handed over to the Mahárájá. In the first Síkh war (1845), Bíkaner troops marched in conjunction with British forces towards Ferozepur; and during the second Síkh campaign (1848), a small body of horse and artillery were placed at the disposal of the British, and camels and stores were collected; but it was found that the route through Bíkaner could not be advantageously used by troops, owing to want of water and supplies. During the Mutiny, the Bíkaner territory furnished a force to co-operate with General Courtland against the mutineers of Sirsa, Hánsi, and Hissár. In recognition of these services, the British Government bestowed 41 villages on the Mahárájá, in addition to the right of adoption. The name of the present prince is Dungar Sinh, who was born about 1853; his family name is Sardár Sinhot Bíká. He is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. Bíkaner contributes to no local corps or contingents; it maintains a force of 750 cavalry, 140 artillerymen, 1300 infantry, 20 field and 75 other guns.

Bíkaner (*Bickaneer*).—The capital of the Rájput State of the same name; situated on a slight elevation amid a scene of singular dreariness, the soil being stony and totally unfit for cultivation. Viewed from some points, it presents the appearance of a great city, having a fine wall surmounted by round towers, and crowned with battlements. So imposing is its appearance, that, when approached in 1808 A.D. by Elphinstone's mission, there were disputes among his followers whether it was not more extensive than Delhi. Some high houses and temples rising above the ramparts, and the striking outline of the lofty fort, add to the impressive appearance of the place. The wall, which is 3½ miles in circuit, is built wholly of stone, and has five gates and three sally-ports. It is 6 feet thick, and from 15 to 30 feet high, including a parapet 6 feet high and 2 feet thick, the breadth of the terre-plain varying from 2 to 4 feet. There is a ditch on three sides only, the ground on the southern

face being intersected by deep ravines, which have broken up the whole plain in that quarter. As the soil is *kankar*, or calcareous conglomerate intermingled with silicious pebbles, the sides of the ditch, though not lined with masonry, are nearly perpendicular. The depth is about 15 feet, the breadth 20 feet, the interval between the wall and the ditch from 20 to 30 yards; but in some places the excavation has been quite filled up. In the interior are many good houses, faced with red sandstone richly carved. Dr. Moore, who was superintending surgeon, observes that carved buildings are more numerous in Bikaner than in any of the Rájput capitals. This tracery is called *khuda* or *manbat*. But the houses are situated in narrow, dirty lanes, where they can scarcely be seen. The poorer kind are besmeared with a sort of reddish clay, abundant in the ravines near the city, which gives the place an appearance of neatness and uniformity, the walls being all red and the doors and windows white. Distinct wards or subdivisions are allotted to the respective trades and crafts. Dr. Moore remarks, regarding the interior of the city, that to the north and the north-east within the walls there are large open spaces not yet built over, or with only small houses here and there. Penetrating farther, the more densely populated portion of the town is reached; and this, from the extreme irregularity of the streets, lanes, and spaces, defies any clear description. None of the capitals or large provincial towns of Rájputána can vie with Bickaneer as regards the grotesque irregularity of its thoroughfares. The population of the city and its suburbs was estimated in 1874 at 35,768 souls; the number of houses within the city, 7331, and 1470 in the suburbs. Of these, 1015 were of masonry. The total number of shops, 741; temples, 13; mosques, 14. The most numerous classes are the Banias, chiefly Oswáls and Mahesrís, whose united numbers amount to 10,000, and the Bráhmans, who exceed 7000, the great majority being Pokarna. The only other class which number over 1000 are the Sewaks, or servants of the various temples. The total number of wells is 41, of which in the city 5 are sweet, in the suburbs 22, in the fort 4, the remainder being brackish. Outside the city stands the Alak Ságar Well, built by the Alakgír sect. It is the finest well in the State, and water is constantly being drawn from four sides. Water at Bikaner is only obtainable 300 or 40 feet below the surface. Dr. Moore investigated the material brough up from a well where water had been reached at a depth of 31 feet. The strata passed through were—first, a mass of *kankar* then red clay; thirdly, sandstone; and lastly, white gritty sand gravel,—the latter consisting of white stones from the size of pea to that of an egg, composed of quartz, and although not roun yet with surfaces and angles so smooth as to give rise to the id

that they must at some time have been exposed to the action of running water. The water of Bíkaner, though not plentiful, is generally excellent in quality. It is somewhat hard from excess of lime, and when drawn from the wells often has a temperature of 85° F. To protect it from organic impurities, a stone covering is usually put over the mouths of wells, and the water is conveyed to the city in large *gharas* or earthen jars instead of the common leathern *masaks*. The people of Bíkaner are exceedingly dirty both in their persons and habits; but as they do not wash in or on the brink of wells, the supply of drinking water is not contaminated. In other respects the sanitary condition of the city is very bad.

In 1870 there were twelve schools for teaching writing and arithmetic, and a Hindí and Urdu school has also been established. There are seven Jain monasteries (*upásarás*), which possess many Sanskrit manuscripts. Bíkaner is famous for the manufacture of a white variety of sugar-candy and of fine woollen blankets. There are also a large number of potters, stone-cutters, and carvers among the population. The fort of Bíkaner, which contains the Rájá's palace, is situated about 300 yards from the Kot gate of the city. The buildings towering above the battlements present an imposing appearance. The palace is 1078 yards in circuit, with two entrances, each of which has three or four successive gates with different names; and its rampart is strengthened by numerous bastions about 40 feet high, and a moat running all round in a direction parallel to the curtains without following the course of the bastions. This moat is 30 feet wide at the top, but narrow at the bottom, and 20 or 25 feet deep. The fort was built in Samvat 1645 by Rájá Rái Sinh. It has been besieged several times, but is said to have been never taken. The palace buildings are the composite work of a long series of Rájás, nearly every one of whom has contributed something. The elephants and horses, as is usual in a Rájput fort, are stabled just under the palace windows. The old fort, built by Bíka, is picturesquely situated on high rocky ground, surrounded by ravines, outside the southern wall of the city. It is small, and now more a shrine than a fort. Within it are the cenotaphs of Bíka and his successors, with some persons of less note. The cremation tank of Bíkaner, used since the time of Jet Sinh, the grandson of Bíka, is situated 3 miles east of the city. On each side of this tank are ranged the cenotaphs of twelve chiefs, from Kalián Sinh to Ratán Sinh. Several of them are fine buildings, and all have graceful pillared domes. The material is the red sandstone of Khárí, and Makráni marble, on which is sculptured a bas-relief with the mounted figure of the chief; on foot, standing in order of precedence before him, the wives; and behind and below him, the concubines who mounted his funeral pile. The date, names

of the dead, and in some cases a verse of Sanskrit besides, is inscribed. The latest distinguished *satí* in Bíkaner was an Udáipur princess named Díp Kunwár, wife of Rájá Surat Sinh's second son, Moti Sinh, who died in 1825 A.D. Not far from the tank is a palace for the convenience of the chief and his ladies when they have occasion to attend ceremonies at Devi Kúnd. The whole *zanána* sometimes comes in procession to worship at Devi Kúnd, where, too, the tonsure of the chief's sons takes place. The city of Bickaneer is in lat. 28° N., long. 73° 22′ E.

Bíkapur.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision in Fáizábád (Fyzabad) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Fyzabad *tahsíl*, on the east by Akbarpur *tahsíl*, on the south by Sultánpur and Musáfirkhána *tahsíls* of Sultánpur, and on the west by Rám Sanehi *tahsíl* of Bára Bánki; lying between 26° 24′ 30″ and 26° 43′ 30″ N. lat., and between 81° 43′ and 82° 23′ E. long. Area, 466 square miles, of which 262 are cultivated; population, according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for subsequent transfers, 268,286 Hindus, 13,913 Muhammadans—total, 282,199, viz. 143,065 males and 139,134 females; number of villages or townships, 630; average density of population, 605 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the 2 *parganás* of Pachhimráth and Jagdíspur-Khandánsa.

Bikkavolu.—Ruins in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* BIRUDANKA-RAYAPURAM.

Bikrampur.—Village in Dacca District, Bengal; celebrated as being the ancient seat of government under the Hindu kings of Bengal, from the reign of Vikramáditya to the overthrow of the dynasty by the Musalmáns. Lat. 23° 33′ N., long. 90° 33′ 30″ E. A quadrangular mound of earth, covering an area of 3000 square feet, and surrounded by a moat 200 feet wide, is pointed out as the site of Rájá Ballál Sen's palace, and the foundations and remains of buildings are found for many miles round. Near the site of the palace is a deep excavation, called Agnikunda, where, according to legend, the last native prince of Bikrampur and his family burned themselves on the approach of the Musalmáns. The village ranks only second to Nadiyá town as regards Sanskrit learning, and contains several *tols* (*see* NADIYA DISTRICT), where logic, rhetoric, grammar, and astronomy are taught.

Biláigarh.—Chiefship in Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1870), 7409; number of villages, 50; area, 109 square miles, or 69,760 acres, of which only 10,977 acres are cultivated, and about 20,000 acres more are cultivable. The ruins of a large fort and of some ancient temples show that the hamlet of the same name (lat. 21° 38′ 15″ N., long. 82° 46′ E.), where the chief resides, was once a place of some importance. The chief is of Gond descent.

Bilári.—*Tahsíl* of Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 318 square miles, of which 250 are cultivated; pop. (1872)

216,122; land revenue, £24,178; total revenue, £24,705; rental paid by cultivators, £56,398; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 4½d.

Bilaspur.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 22′ and 22° 32′ N. lat., and between 81° 3′ and 83° 5′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Native State of Rewah, on the east by Chutiá Nágpur and the chiefships of Sambalpur District, on the south by Ráipur, and on the west by the mountains of Mandlá and Bálághát. Population in 1872, 715,398; area, 7798 square miles. The administrative headquarters of the District are at BILASPUR, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—The District resembles a vast amphitheatre, opening on the south upon the plains of Ráipur, but on every other side surrounded by tiers of hills. These irregular chains, though known in each locality by a special name, form in truth a part of the great Vindhyan sandstone range, which extends from east to west across the whole peninsula of India. In Biláspur, the hills on the northern side constitute the most important series. They run along the whole length of the plain,—here thrusting forth an arm or throwing up an isolated peak, or advancing boldly into the level country, there receding into deep hollows and recesses, usually covered with luxuriant vegetation. From the solitary cliff of Dahlá, 2600 feet high, standing out in the plain about 15 miles east of Bilaspur, the features of the country can be best descried. On the one side, a great expanse of plain stretches away as far as the eye can reach; on the other, rise irregular ranges of hills, which throw a dark shadow on the green surface below. From this height, the spectator can easily discern the villages which dot the landscape, the numerous tanks sparkling in the sun, and the mango, *pípal*, and tamarind groves which break the monotony of the generally shadeless plain. Examined more closely, the vast plateau breaks up into a series of undulations; sometimes a long stretch of sandy or stony upland, then an expanse of low-lying rice fields, and again abrupter alternations, deeply cleft by many a fissure or ravine. But the grander scenery of Bilaspur must be sought in the hilly country occupied by tracts of Government waste, and by fifteen chiefships, in two of which, Sakti and Kawárda, the chiefs have been acknowledged as feudatories. In these highlands, the scanty villages convey no impression of permanence, but are mere solitary breaks in a vast mountain wilderness. In Mátin and Uprora lies perhaps the wildest country in Chhatisgarh. Here it is that the shattered forest trees, the broken and crushed bamboo clumps, the hollows and footprints in a hundred marshes and water-courses, indicate the presence of wild elephants. Sometimes, when the rice crop is ripening, a herd will wander into a neighbouring chiefship, and in a single night destroy the toil of months; but from

Mátin and Uprora, elephants are never absent, and may be seen on the wooded slopes of the Hasdu river, in the shady depths of the forest, near some waterfall or deep still pool in the bed of the mountain torrent.

The Mahánadi, though it only flows for about twenty-five miles along the south-eastern extremity of the District, forms the centre of the drainage system of Biláspur. A magnificent river during the rains, attaining in places a breadth of two miles, the Mahánadi in the hot season dwindles down to a narrow stream creeping through a vast expanse of sand, which may almost anywhere be forded with ease. Most of the waters of the District flow from the northern and western hills; but these ranges constitute a distinct watershed, and give birth to other streams, which, flowing north and west, and leaving Biláspur behind them, by degrees assume the dignity of rivers. Such are the Són, which rises in a marshy hollow in Pendrá, and the Narbadá (Nerbudda), rushing picturesquely over the rocky heights of Amarkantak.

History.—Until the invasion of the Marhattás, Biláspur was governed by the Haihai Bansí kings of Ratanpur, whose annals are lost in the mist of antiquity. The dealings of Krishna with Múrta Dhwaja, the earliest recorded prince of the line, are related in the *Jaimini Purána* (Jaiminiya Aswamedha). The god, disguised as a Bráhman, asked half of Múrta Dhwaja's body to test his faith. The king consented to be cut in two with a saw; but when all was ready, Krishna revealed himself, and showered blessings on the head of the pious prince. From this time until the Marhattá invasion, no man used the saw throughout the land. The Rájás at Ratanpur ruled originally over 36 forts, and hence the tract was called Chhatisgarh, or 'the place of 36 forts.' But on the accession of the twentieth Rájá, Surdevá, about A.D. 750, Chhatisgarh was divided into two sections; and while Surdeva continued to govern the northern half from Ratanpur, his younger brother, Brahmadevá, moved to Ráipur and held the southern portion. From this time two separate Rájás ruled in Chhatisgarh; for though nine generations later the direct line from Brahmadevá became extinct, a younger son from the Ratanpur house again proceeded to Ráipur, whose issue continued in power till the advent of the Marhattás. The 36 forts were in reality each the headquarters of a *táluká*, comprising a number of villages, held sometimes *khám*, and sometimes as feudal tenures, by relations or influential chiefs. Of the 18 divisions retained by Surdevá, as compared with the present Bilászpur District, 11 are *khálsá* jurisdictions, and 7 are *zamíndárís*, while the 18th *karkatí* appears to have been made over to Rewah by Rájá Dádú Rái about 1480, as a dowry to his daughter. Of other tracts now included in Bilászpur, Pandaria and Kawárda, on the west, were wrested from the Gond dynasty of Mandlá; Korba from Sargújá

about 1520; and the small chiefship of Biláigarh, south of the Mahánadi, with the *khálsá* tract of Kikarda, on the east, from Sambalpur about 1580. Surdevá was succeeded by his son Prithvídevá, of whose deeds local tradition is full; and the sculptured tablets of Malhár and Amarkantak still record, in Sanskrit verse, how he was a terror to his enemies, a friend to his people, generous to the learned, and himself fond of learning. After Prithvídevá followed a long line of Rájás, whose names are commemorated on temple slabs, associated now with the building of a shrine, now with the construction of a tank; but it was not till the reign of Kalyán Sahí, between 1536 and 1573, that this landlocked region came into contact with the outer world. That prince, leaving the government in his son's hands, proceeded to Delhi to have audience of the great Akbar, and, after eight years' absence, returned to Ratanpur invested with the full rights of Rájá and a high-sounding title. The prudent submission of Kalyán Sahí helped to prolong the independence of his dynasty, and, after nine further successions, a Rájá of the Haihai Bansí line still ruled in Bilάspur. But Ráj Sinh had no child. At the same time he had no wish that his nearest heir, his great-uncle Sardár Sinh, should succeed him. Accordingly the Rájá took counsel of his Bráhman *díwán*, a hereditary servant of the family. After much discussion, and an appeal to the sacred books, it was resolved that a Bráhman selected by the *díwán* should visit the favourite Rání. In due time she gave birth to a son, who received the name of Bisnáth Sinh; and the popular rejoicings knew no bounds. Immediately Bisnáth Sinh grew up, he was united to a daughter of the Rájá of Rewah. Soon after the marriage festival the young couple were playing a game of chance, when Bisnáth Sinh sorely tried his bride's temper by defeating her game after game. At length she discovered that he was playing unfairly, and rising from the table she said, half in jest and half in scorn, 'Of course I should expect to be overreached, for are you not a Bráhman and no Rájput!' Stung to the soul with the taunt, confirming as it did whispers which had already reached him, the young prince went hurriedly out and stabbed himself to the heart. When Ráj Sinh heard what had happened, he resolved to revenge himself on his *díwán*, through whose imprudence or treachery the shame of the royal house had been revealed. The Díwán Pára, or 'Minister's Square,' of Ratanpur at that time formed an imposing part of the town. There lived the *díwán*, and round him a crowd of relations who, however distantly connected, had congregated near the fortunate representative of the family. The Rájá blew down with cannon the whole of this quarter, involving in one common ruin every member of the small community, to the number of over 400 men, women, and children. With the *díwán*, most of the records of

the dynasty perished. After these occurrences Mohan Sinh, of the Ráipur house, a vigorous and attractive young man, was generally regarded as the Rájá's destined successor. But Mohan Sinh chanced to be away on a hunting expedition, when Ráj Sinh was thrown violently from his horse. Finding himself near death, and the young man not appearing, the Rájá placed the *pagrí* on the head of Sardár Sinh. A few days after Ráj Sinh's death, Mohan Sinh arrived, but only to find Sardár Sinh duly installed. In a fit of rage he departed, muttering that he would yet return and assume the government. Sardár Sinh, however, ruled quietly for twenty years, and was succeeded, in 1732, by his brother Raghunáth Sinh, a man over sixty years old. Eight years later the Marhattá general, Bháskar Panth, invaded Biláspur with an army of 40,000 men. At that time Raghunáth Sinh was bowed down by a heavy sorrow, having lately lost his only son. The heart-broken old man made no attempt to defend himself, and gave no sign till part of his palace was already in ruins from the enemy's fire. Then one of the Ránís mounted the parapet and exhibited a flag of truce. Thus ingloriously ended the rule of the Haihai Bansí dynasty. The Marhattás, after exacting a heavy fine and pillaging the country, permitted the fallen Rájá to carry on the government in the name of the Bhonslás. Meantime Mohan Sinh had become a favourite of Raghojí Bhonslá; and on the death of Raghunáth Sinh, the ambition of his youth was gratified by his installation as Rájá. In 1758, Bimbájí Bhonslá succeeded, and ruled at Ratanpur for nearly thirty years; and when he died, his widow, Anandí Báí, held the real authority till about 1800. From this time till the deposition of Appá Sáhib by the British in 1818, a succession of *subahdárs* misgoverned Biláspur. The occupation of the District by a Marhattá army, the raids of the Pindárís, and the exactions of the *subahdárs* or deputies, had half ruined the country, when it was placed under Colonel Agnew's superintendence. From this date it has begun to improve. In 1830 the last Raghojí came of age, and ruled from that time until his death. On the lapse of the Nágpur Province to the British Government in 1854, Chhatisgarh was formed into a separate Deputy Commissionership with headquarters at Ráipur; but the charge proved too heavy for a single officer, and finally, in 1861, Biláspur was constituted a separate District, comprising, with the additions subsequently made, the northern section of the Chhatisgarh country. During the Mutiny, no disturbance occurred except at Sonákhán, a small estate among the hills at the south-eastern corner of the District, the *zamíndár* of which, breaking out from Ráipur jail, where he was confined on a charge of dacoity with murder, returned to his fastnesses and openly defied authority. Captain Smith, however, at once proceeded to the spot, and the *zamíndár* unconditionally surrendered. His execution, and the confiscation of his property,

effectually checked any further opposition, which in so wild a country might have proved most harassing.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Bilāspur at 780,503. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 715,398, independently of the population (83,856) of the two Feudatory States attached to the District. The latest estimate in 1877 indicates a total of 840,023, but the Census of 1872 still remains the only trustworthy basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 715,398 persons, residing in 3366 villages or townships, and 170,237 houses; area, 7798 square miles; persons per square mile, 91·74; villages per square mile, 0·43; houses per square mile, 21·83; persons per village, 212·54; persons per house, 4·2; number of males, 360,433—of females, 354,965; male children (in 1877), 190,297—female children, 171,343. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 8; Eurasians, 12; aboriginal tribes, 118,358; Hindus, 505,981; Muhammadans, 9011; Buddhists and Jains, 6. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes is the Gond, 87,200 in 1872, the remainder consisting of Bhariás, Mariás, Kurkús, Baigás, etc. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans numbered in 1872, 15,953; Kurmís, 32,998; Telís, 50,027; Ahírs or Gaulis, 57,267; Kanwárs, 27,133; Chamárs, 52,484; Dhímars, 29,628; native Christians in 1877, 17. The figures given above, however, will convey a false impression as to the density of population throughout the District, unless it be remembered that large tracts of hill country along the borders lie utterly desolate, while villages and hamlets thickly cover the face of the plain.

A cloth of scanty dimensions forms the sole dress of a cultivator, and a cloth of larger size satisfies all the requirements of fashion for the women. It is tightened at the waist, and while half hangs loosely down to the knee, the other half is spread over the breast, and drawn across the right shoulder. For ornaments a man will adopt a gold or silver bracelet, or small ear-rings, or pride himself on a silver waistband; few, except young Gond ladies, wear toe-rings or anklets. All classes habitually take three meals a day—rice and *dál* at noon, rice and vegetables cooked with *ghí* in the evening, and in the morning, before beginning work, a rice gruel called *bású*, which consists simply of the remains of the last evening's repast filled up with water and served cold. The castes who eat fish and flesh have of course a greater variety of diet; and the abundance of milk and *gúr* enables a clever matron to provide occasional sweets. On the whole, the great body of the people live well; but their simplicity and superstition render them an easy prey to designing persons. An instance may be mentioned. About twenty years ago a Panká, named Mangal, gave out that a deity had entered into him, and, sitting with a light before him, received the adoration and offerings of crowds of worshippers. It happened to

be the cultivating season, and Mangal proclaimed that good men's crops would spring up without sowing. Thousands believed his teaching, till, finding the revenue falling off, the Native Government arrested Mangal, and committed him to Ráipur jail. The language spoken in the District is corrupt Hindí, with an admixture of aboriginal words. The largest towns in the District are—RATANPUR (population, 5111), BILASPUR (4898), and MUNGELI (4392); and 38 other towns have a population exceeding 1000. Townships of from 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 1100; villages of fewer than 200 inhabitants, 2125. The only municipality is Biláspur; population within municipal limits, 5195.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 7798 square miles, only 2030 are cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 1968 are returned as cultivable. Less than a fifth of the cultivated land is irrigated entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 6d. per acre of cultivated land, and 2d. on the cultivable land. Rice forms the staple crop of the District, occupying, in 1877, 872,985 acres. Either the black earth, consisting of the *débris* of trap, or the red, which is probably decomposed laterite, will suit this crop; but the situation and aspect of the rice fields, which are excessively small, are considered of more importance than the nature of the soil. Sugar-cane and garden produce grow well on the sandy patches. It is only for these crops that irrigation is resorted to and manure used. Where rice is grown, rotation of crops is not practised, nor is the land allowed to remain fallow. The yield of new land averages 25 to 30 per cent. extra, till in four or five years it falls to the common level. With other crops rotation is in use. Thus, after wheat will come gram or *masúr*, and then perhaps *kodo*. Cotton is often succeeded by *tíl* or some other oil-seed; and where this is not done, after four or five years the land is left fallow. The cultivation of cotton continues to increase, having nearly doubled within the last few years. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 8095 proprietors. The tenants numbered over 114,000, of whom 15,071 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 99,554 were tenants-at-will. In 1877, the rent of land suited for rice averaged 11d.; for wheat, 1s. 2d.; for cotton or oil-seeds, 9d.; for sugar-cane, 3s. 6d. Average produce per acre—rice, 400 lbs.; wheat, 280 lbs.; cotton, 20 lbs.; and oil-seeds, 200 lbs. Rice fetches 1s. 9d. per cwt.; wheat, 1s. 4d. per cwt.; cotton, £2, 14s. 8d. per cwt.; and raw sugar (*gur*), 11s. per cwt. Wages average for skilled labour 9d., for unskilled 2d., per diem. The extensive forests of the District are situated in the chiefships, and belong to private proprietors; the only large tracts of Government forest consisting of the wastes which spread over the Lormí and Lamní Hills on the north-west, and the confiscated area at Sonákhán. On the plain skirting the northern hills, other patches of jungle have

been reserved. *Sál* is the only valuable timber, and the inaccessibility of the forests renders the revenue from this source of small value. Of jungle products, *lac* and *tasar* silk are the most important. In some villages the practice prevails of changing fields periodically, to prevent any monopoly of the best sites. Everywhere throughout the District the husbandmen show but slight attachment to their individual holdings; even a hereditary tenant will, for a small sum, relinquish his land.

Natural Calamities.—An agricultural population, dependent for its subsistence on a single crop, and that one which requires a heavy downpour in each of the four rainy months, would appear peculiarly exposed to famine. Happily, however, owing to its girdle of hills, Bilášpur enjoys a fairly regular monsoon, and an abundant fall in one part generally compensates for drought in another. Moreover, the numerous tanks, though of small size, add considerably to the water supply of the District. Nor does this resource diminish. In 1872, the sinkers of wells and tanks numbered 2530 persons.

Commerce and Trade.—The weaving trade constitutes the only important local industry. In 1870 it employed about 6000 looms, turning out at least 600,000 cloths, of the value of £60,000. Besides the regular weavers, the Panká caste work at the loom as well as in the fields, and nearly half the cloth in the District is made by them. Iron ore abounds in the hilly regions; but owing to the absence of *agarias* or smelters, the manufacture does not extend beyond a few chiefships. Near Korba on the right bank of the Hasdu, and in the beds of two hill streams, the Bijákherá and Mundjháría, and probably in other parts, coal exists in considerable quantities. It is shaly and inferior on the surface, and whether the lower seams will prove of better quality has not yet been ascertained. The District offers at many points sandstone excellently suited for building purposes, but the only important quarries are those near Bilášpur and Seorináráyan. The weekly markets, of which at least 170 are held throughout the District, supply the means of internal trade. They are held either in a shady mango grove, or, more frequently, in some open space near a village. At the large *bázárs* at Bámindi, Ganiári, Takhtpur, and Mungeli, a brisk traffic in cattle is carried on. The chief imports of the District are sugar, metals, English piece-goods, and cattle, while the exports consist entirely of agricultural produce—rice, wheat, gram, and *lac.* The whole trade tends in a westerly direction, to the railway at Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). In that direction the Banjárás drive their long lines of pack-bullocks along a track winding over hill and valley, and across the steep and craggy beds of numerous streams. The northern routes through Pendra to Rewah, and through Uprora to Mírzápur, pass over a difficult country, and are only available for pack-bullocks during six months in the year. Though no made roads yet exist in Bilášpur, the abundance of gravel

would render their construction comparatively easy. During half the year the Mahánadi supplies a means of communication for the 25 miles of its course through the District, but rocky barriers render the navigation a difficult task.

Administration.—In 1861, Biláspur was formed into a separate District under the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1868-69, £31,977, of which the land yielded £27,195; total cost of officials and police of all kinds, £10,802; number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts, 7—magistrates, 19; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 56 miles—average distance, 10 miles; number of police, 300, costing £4415, being 1 policeman to every 26 square miles and to about 2466 inhabitants. Owing chiefly to the plenty which prevails throughout the District, crime is comparatively rare, and for the most part confined to small offences. In 1876, the daily number of convicts in jail averaged 79·22, of whom 5·62 were females. The total expenditure on the jails in that year amounted to £518. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 59, attended by 3268 pupils. Biláspur, the only municipality, contains a population of 5195 persons; the total municipal income in the year 1876-77 was £168, of which £108 was derived from taxation, at an average rate of 4½d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—From the middle of April to the middle of June hot winds prevail, and the heat is frequently excessive, though tempered by occasional showers. After the first heavy fall of rain, the climate becomes cool and agreeable, and few days pass without a pleasant breeze. In the plain, however, the cold weather from November to February fails to prove bracing. Average temperature in the shade at the civil station in 1876—May, highest reading 113° F., lowest 84° F.; July, highest reading 101° F., lowest 74° F.; December, highest reading 89° F., lowest 56° F. From 1862 to 1868 the mean yearly rainfall was 47 inches, but at Mungeli the rainfall in 1876 amounted to 81·74 inches. In the opinion of Mr. Chisholm—to whose Settlement Report this article is greatly indebted—the climate of Biláspur has a worse name than it deserves, owing to the attacks of cholera which formerly broke out during the hot weather along the pilgrim route to Jagannáth, and thence spread over the country. In 1868, the passage of pilgrims was prohibited, with the best results. Fever proves by far the most fatal disease in the District, and about the end of the cold weather small-pox prevails. In 1876, the death-rate from all causes was 26·19 per 1000 of the population, the mean for the previous five years being 21·06. In that year three charitable dispensaries afforded relief to 7870 in-door and out-door patients.

Biláspur.—Revenue Subdivision or *tahsíl* in District of same name, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 38′ and 22° 25′ N. lat., and between 81° 46′ and 82° 31′ E. long.; pop. (1872), 268,872, distributed among 1479 villages or townships, and 59,587 houses; area, 4770 square miles; land revenue, £8453; total revenue, £8950.

Biláspur.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Biláspur District, Central Provinces; on the south bank of the river Arpá. Lat. 22° 5′ N., long. 82° 12′ E.; pop. (1877), 4898. Founded about 300 years ago by a fisherwoman named Bilása, whence the name Bilášpur, it long consisted of only a few fishermen's huts, till, about a century ago, Kesava Panth Subah, who administered the District under the Marhattás, fixed his residence here and began to build a brick fort on the river bank. Subsequently, on the Marhattás removing their headquarters to RATANPUR, the rising prosperity of the town dwindled away. In 1862, however, Bilášpur was constituted the headquarters of the British District. The belt of woods, the gardens and mango groves, and the distant hills, render the situation pleasant and attractive.

Bilášpur.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; 16 miles south-west of Bulandshahr town, and 2 miles south of Sikandarabad railway station, with which it is connected by a metalled road. Pop. (1872), 2732. Post office, school, market on Saturdays. Chiefly remarkable as headquarters of the Skinner family and estate, founded by Col. James Skinner, C.B. Handsome house and fine garden, large mud fort containing family mansion. Mr. T. Skinner held the fort during the Mutiny. Owing to the bad management of his son, the Court of Wards has now undertaken charge of the estate.

Bilášpur.—One of the Punjab Hill States.—*See* KAHLUR.

Bilášpur. — Capital of the Bilášpur or Kahlúr State, Punjab, and residence of the Rájá. Lat. 31° 19′ N., long. 76° 50′ E. Picturesquely situated on the left bank of the Sutlej, 1465 feet above sea level. Suffered much in the early part of the present century from the depredations of the Gurkhás. Well-built stone houses; *bázár*; neat but unpretentious palace of the Rájá. Ferry across the Sutlej, 2 miles above the town, forms the chief communication with the Punjab proper.

Bilga.—Town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 3′ N., long. 75° 4′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 6441, comprising 2689 Hindus, 1147 Muhammadans, and 2605 Síkhs. Unimportant, commercially and politically. Formerly possessed a municipality, which has lately been abolished.

Bilgrám.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sháhábád, and on the east by Hardoi *tahsíls*; on the south by Safipur *tahsíl* of Unao; and on the west by Farrukhábád District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 558 square miles, of

which 351 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 237,459; Muhammadans, 21,840; total, 259,299, viz. 130,815 males and 120,484 females. Number of villages and towns, 492; average density of population, 465 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the 5 *parganás* of Bilgrám, Sándi, Katiári, Mallánwán, and Kachhandan.

Bilgrám.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sándi, on the east and south by Mallánwán, and on the west by Bangar. The *parganá* was formed in the time of Akbar, and is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbarí* as covering 192,800 *bighás*, and paying a land revenue of 5,124,113 *dáms*, besides 356,690 *dáms* of cesses. It was held by Sayyids, and garrisoned by 1000 foot soldiers and 20 troopers, lodged in a masonry fort. Its area included *parganá* Bangar. The Ráikwárs, who expelled the Thatherás, founded the now ruined town and fort of Srínagar in the 9th or 10th century A.D., and held the surrounding country up to the time of the campaign of Sáhib-ud-dín Ghori in 1193, which resulted in the fall of Kanauj, and the subsequent subjugation of Oudh by Sháms-ud-dín Altamsh in 1217. The two officers who reduced Srínagar and the surrounding country, are the ancestors of the present Muhammadan *tálukdárs* of Bilgrám. Area, 117 square miles, of which 71 are cultivated. Staple products, barley, *bájra*, wheat, *arhar*, *joár*, and gram. Tobacco is largely grown in the vicinity of Bilgrám town. Government land revenue £7468, showing an average incidence of 3s. 4⅞d. per acre of cultivated land, and 1s. 11⅞d. per acre of total area. More than half the *parganá* is held by Sayyids, who own 64 villages; Shaikhs and Patháns each hold 1; Kshattriyas, 27, of which only 5 now remain to the Ráikwárs; other castes 10, while 2 are in the possession of Government. The different tenures under which the villages are held are—*tálukdárí*, 58½; *zamíndárí*, 34½; *pattidárí*, 21. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 49,163; Muhammadans, 7081; total, 56,244, viz. 29,900 males and 26,344 females; average density of population, 481 per square mile. The Chamárs form a seventh, the Ahírs a ninth, and the Bráhmans rather less than a tenth of the population. Two unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*.

Bilgrám.—Chief town of the *tahsíl* of the same name, in Hardoi District, and the twelfth in importance among the towns of Oudh; near the left bank of the old channel of the Ganges, about 15 miles south of Hardoi town. Lat. 27° 10′ 30″ N., long. 80° 4′ 30″ E. In olden times, this place was held by the Thatherás, who were expelled by the Ráikwárs under Rájá Srí Rám, who founded a city which he named after himself, Srínagar. The Ráikwárs in their turn were ousted by the Muhammadans about 1217 A.D. A famous Muhammadan saint, whose tomb is the oldest Musalmán building in the place, is said to have slain a demon named Bel by his enchantments, and the name of

the place was changed to Belgrám or Bilgrám. The town abounds with fragments of carved stone bas-reliefs, pillars, and capitals of old Hindu columns. Great blocks of stone and *kankar* mark what are believed to be the remains of the old fort and temple of Srínagar and the Ságar tank, constructed by Rájá Srí Rám. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 6933, and Muhammadans, 4601; total, 11,534, residing in 2454 houses, of which 640 are of brick. Principal buildings—the *tahsíli* courts, police station, school, *sarái*, *imámbára*, and several mosques. The two *bázárs* were constructed by the Nawáb Mehndí Alí Khán, as also the large and important grain mart at Kafáatganj, half a mile south of the town, whence large quantities of wheat and barley are despatched to Kanauj, Farrukhábád, and Cawnpore. The principal articles made in Bilgrám are brass *pán* boxes, shoes, and sweetmeats. Bilgrám is also noted as the birthplace of several famous Muhammadan poets, historians, and Government officials.

Bilhaur.—*Tahsíl* of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the southern bank of the Ganges. Area, 196 square miles, of which 103 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 96,439 souls; land revenue, £19,078; total revenue, £20,985; rental paid by cultivators, £32,596; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. $0\frac{3}{8}$d.

Bilhaur.—Town in Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 26° 50′ 10″ N., long. 80° 6′ 30″ E.; area, 307 acres; pop. (1872), 5954. Lies on the Grand Trunk Road, 34 miles north-west of Cawnpore, 4 miles from the Ganges, and 1 from the Isan. Centre of local disturbance during the Mutiny of 1857.

Biligiri-rangan.—Range of hills in the east of the Yelandúr *jágír*, included in Mysore District, Mysore State, running north and south for about 11 miles. On the highest point, about 5000 feet above sea level, is the temple of Biligiri Rangaswámí, the Sanskrit Svetadri, from which the hills are named. The slopes are steep, and covered with long grass and groves of forest trees, including teak and sandal-wood. Wild animals abound, especially elephants, bison, and *sámbhar* deer. The only inhabitants are the wild tribe of Soligárs, who occupy isolated hamlets of wattle huts. The summit is reached by two paths, the best of which, 9 miles long, is just passable for horses. At the top is a bungalow, near which is a cinchona plantation, maintained at the joint expense of the Mysore Government and the *jágírdár* of Yelandúr, and protected from wild elephants by a deep trench. Excepting a small garden owned by the *shánbhóg* of the temple, coffee-planting has not yet been introduced, though the soil and climate are favourable. The obstacles are fever at certain seasons of the year, and an insufficient supply of drinking water. The temperature is moderate, the thermometer seldom rising above 75° or falling below 60° F. The temple is a shrine of great antiquity, built on the brink of a precipice. An

endowment of two villages granted by the Díwán Púrnaiya yields a revenue of £95. On the summit of a neighbouring peak are the ruins of an old fort.

Bilihra.—Rent-free estate in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, consisting of 5 villages; area, 15 square miles. This estate, which originally comprised 12 villages, was assigned by the Peshwá to one Prithvi Pát at a quit-rent. His descendants remained in undisturbed possession till 1818, when the District was ceded to the British, and the quit-rent tenure was changed. Seven out of the 12 villages were fully assessed, and 5 (the present estate) were continued to the possessors rent-free in perpetuity. Bilihra village contained in 1870 a population of 1331, dwelling in 299 houses. Village school.

Bilimorá.—Town belonging to the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda, included within the limits of Surat District, Bombay. Lat. 20° 41′ N., long. 73° 4′ E.; pop. (1872), 5218. Bilimorá has a station on the Bombay and Baroda Railway, and a post office. Average annual value of sea-borne trade for five years ending 1871-72—exports, £64,243; imports, £14,400.

Bilrám.—Town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces; 19 miles north-east of Etah town. Pop. (1872), 3219. Connected with the *tahsíl* town of Kásganj by a broad road. Bi-weekly market. Bilrám is said to have been originally founded about 560 years ago by Chauhán Rájputs; but afterwards entirely destroyed by the Muhammadans, and the population either slain or forcibly converted to the faith of their conquerors. The numerous and extensive ruins of mosques and large buildings attest that in former days it must have been a place of considerable importance. The town is now far from flourishing, and has little or no trade.

Bilri.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £300.

Bilsi.—Municipal town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces; 13 miles north-west of Budáun town. Lat. 28° 7′ 45″ N., long. 78° 56′ 50″ E.; area, 65 acres; pop. (1872), 5282. Largest mart for the neighbouring portions of Rohilkhand. Brisk export traffic in sugar, corn, leather, and gunny; imports of chintz, salt, groceries, iron, metal utensils, and *pán*. Trade with Háthras, Cawnpore, and Chandausi. School and dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £421; from taxes, £362, or 1s. 2⅛d. per head of population (6115) within municipal limits.

Bimlipatam.—*Táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Houses, 24,559, grouped into 201 towns and villages, all *zamíndárí*. Pop. (1871), 106,419, 54,365 males and 52,054 females. Hindus, 105,241 (including 11,778 Sivaites and 93,422 Vaishnavs); Muhammadans, 934; Christians, mostly Roman Catholics, 210; 'others,' 34.

Bimlipatam.—Municipal town in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 53′ 15″ N., long. 83° 29′ 50″ E.; houses, 2049; pop. (1871), 8744. Situated on the coast 18 miles north-east of Vizagapatam, and 454 south-west from Calcutta. Municipal revenue in 1876, £1400; incidence of municipal taxation per head of rateable population, 2s. Subordinate magistrate's court, dispensary, post and telegraph offices, etc. As the chief port of the District, Bimlipatam enjoys a large trade. The returns for 1875-76 show a total tonnage of 218,022 tons; the exports—chiefly sugar, indigo, and oil-seeds to France—being valued at £246,132, and the imports at £138,559. Though an open roadstead, the port is somewhat protected by the Upada and Sugar-loaf headlands, and good anchorage, in 6½ fathoms, can be obtained 2 miles off shore. The river does not admit boats of more than 60 tons, and these only during a portion of the year. The Madras Bank has a branch here. Tradition derives the name from Bhíma, one of the Pandu princes, said to have founded the town. In the 17th century, the Dutch erected a factory here, and held it till 1825, when it was ceded to the Company. Till 1846, Bimlipatam remained a mere fishing village, but in that year began to attract European capital and enterprise. In 1852-53, the total tonnage entering the port was 83,760; by 1868 the value of the exports had risen to £220,000, and that of the imports to £310,000. Besides this, the trade in bullion was—imports, £92,793, and exports, £21,334.

Bindrában. — A sacred city of the Hindus, in Muttra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BRINDABAN.

Binganapalli.—Village in Nellore District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 1257. Till recently a large salt export station, with a local manufacture of 110,000 *maunds* per annum. The Mannér river bifurcates above the village, and enters the sea on either side of it.

Bír.—Village with iron mines in Kángra District, Punjab; 28 miles from Kángra fort. Lat. 32° 2′ 45″ N., long. 76° 46′ 15″ E. The mining district lies in the Dháola Dhár range, and extends for some 14 miles along the valley of the river Ul, its centre being at the village of Dharmáni. The ore occurs in the form of crystalline magnetic oxide of iron, embedded in decomposed and friable mica-schists. It is worked at its outcrop in open quarries. The metal produced equals in quality the finest iron obtained in England; but, owing to the remoteness of the mines from any large market, the inadequacy of the fuel supply, the imperfect means of communication, and the limited amount of labour available, very small quantities are at present smelted. The estimated out-turn does not exceed 100 tons per annum. Developed by European capital and engineering skill, the mines of Bír might possibly produce large quantities of excellent metal. The ore is of the same character as that from which the best Swedish iron is manufactured.

Biramganta.—Town and salt-station in Nellore District, Madras;

5 miles from Ongole. Forms with Devarampád the 'Padarti salt division,' yielding an annual out-turn of 143,000 *maunds* of salt.

Bír Bandh.—An embankment running along the west bank of the Dáús river, in the north of Bhágalpur District, Bengal. It is usually represented as being a fortification erected by a prince named Bír; and this supposition is favoured by the fact that the Dáús is at present an insignificant stream, which does not require embanking. At one time, however, it was probably much larger, and it may be that the Bír Bandh was raised to restrain its overflow.

Bírbhúm (*Beerbhoom*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 33′ and 24° 9′ N. lat., and between 87° 7′ 30″ and 88° 4′ 15″ E. long.; area, 1344 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 696,943 souls. It is bounded on the north by the Santál Parganás and the District of Murshidábád; on the east by the Districts of Murshidábád and Bardwán; on the south by Bardwán District, the Ajái river forming the boundary line for the whole distance; and on the west by the Santál Parganás. The District takes its name, according to the Sanskrit etymologists, from *Vir-Ohumi*, 'hero-land;' but the Santáli word *Vir*, meaning jungle, has also been suggested as its derivation.

Physical Aspects.—The eastern portion of the District is an alluvial plain, presenting the ordinary features of the Bengal lowlands; towards the west the ground rises, the surface consisting of undulating beds of laterite, which rest on a basis of rock. Granitic veins traverse the District in parts, occasionally appearing on the surface. About 15 miles south-west of the Civil Station of Surí, there is a curious mass of granite, rising to a height of 30 or 40 feet, split up into numerous irregular fragments by the action of sun and rain. No important or navigable river flows through Bírbhúm; the largest stream is the Ajai, which forms the southern boundary line of the District. The only other streams deserving notice are the Mor or Maureksha, the Bakeswar, the Hinglá, and the Dwarká. The Mor is occasionally navigable, but by descending boats only. Small canoes are built on the banks of the stream, and floated down during the freshets; they carry charcoal to Katwá, where they are sold with their cargoes, as they cannot be taken up stream again. On the bank of the Bakeswar *nálá*, about a mile south of the village of Tántipárá, occurs a group of sulphur springs, named the Bhúm Bakeswar, and numerous hot jets also burst forth in the bed of the stream itself. This spot is a noted place of pilgrimage, and the right bank of the stream is covered with temples erected by pilgrims in honour of Mahádeo or Siva. Another warm spring breaks out near the village of Sakarakunda.

History.—The area of the District is at present much more limited than in former times. When it first came under British administration,

the Bírbhúm *zamíndárí* occupied an area of 3858 square miles; and the District included in addition the *zamíndárí* of Bishnupur, which was in the beginning of the present century separated and formed into the independent Collectorate of Bánkurá. Some years later, reductions were made in the remaining portion of Bírbhúm District, by the separation from it of considerable tracts on the west, which now form part of the Santál Parganás. Finally, within the last few years, in order to make the different jurisdictions conterminous, further transfers of small tracts have been made, reducing the present area of the District to 1344 square miles. In the beginning of the 18th century, the *zamíndárí* of Bírbhúm was formally conferred by Jafar Khán on one Asadullá Patbán, whose family had settled in the country a century earlier, after the fall of the Pathán dynasty of Bengal kings. The estate remained in the family until the British obtained, in 1765, the financial administration of Bengal. It was not till 1787, however, that the Company assumed the direct Government of Bírbhúm. Before that year the local authority was suffered to remain in the hands of the Rájá. Meanwhile, bands of marauders from the western highlands, after making frequent predatory incursions, had established themselves in the District. The Rájá could do nothing against these invaders, who formed large permanent camps in strong positions; intercepted the revenues on the way to the treasury, brought the commercial operations of the Company to a stand-still, and caused many of the factories to be abandoned. It became absolutely necessary for the English Government to interfere, and the first step in that direction was taken in 1787, when the two border principalities of Bírbhúm and Bánkurá were united into one District, a considerable armed force being maintained to repress the bands of plunderers on the western frontier. On one occasion, in 1788, the Collector had to call out the troops against a band of marauders five hundred strong, who had made a descent on a market town within two hours' ride of the English station, and murdered or frightened away the inhabitants of between thirty and forty villages. In the beginning of the following year, the inroads assumed even more serious proportions, the plunderers going about sacking villages 'in parties of three or four hundred men, well found in arms.' The population was panic-stricken, the large villages and trading dépôts were abandoned, and the Collector was compelled hastily to recall the outposts stationed at the frontier passes, to levy a militia supplementing the regular troops, and obtain reinforcements of soldiery from the neighbouring Districts. The marauders could not hold out against the forces thus brought against them, and were driven back into the mountains. Order was soon established, and the country recovered with amazing rapidity from the disastrous effects of the ravages to which it had been exposed. The neglected fields were cultivated once more; the

inhabitants returned to the deserted villages; and the people, reassured by the success of the measures taken by the Government, eagerly joined them against the marauders. In the beginning of the present century, the District was reported to be remarkably free from robbery; and so completely have the troublous times through which it passed faded from local memory, that, a few years ago, the District was described in a public document as still enjoying 'its old immunity from crime.' The District is now as peaceful as any in Bengal, and the administrative statistics, which will be found below, furnish an eloquent commentary on the results of British rule in Bírbhúm.

Population.—The population of the District, according to the Census of 1872, is 696,945 persons, dwelling in 160,206 houses, and 2478 villages; the average pressure of the population on the soil being 518 persons per square mile. The large majority of the people—83 per cent.—are Hindus; nearly 16 per cent. are Muhammadans, and the remaining 1 per cent. consist of aboriginal tribes who still hold their primitive faiths. This represents, however, by no means the total aboriginal population of the District; for a large number among the descendants of the aborigines are now included in the general Hindu population. Among these semi-Hinduized aborigines are numbered 56,157 Bágdís; 34,994 Doms; 30,181 Chamárs and Muchís; and 24,569 Báurís:—thus raising the total number of aboriginal tribes to 197,423. The Christians number 249, of whom 158 are native converts. The persons of high caste (Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Ghátwáls) amount to nearly 50,000; of agricultural and pastoral castes, 148,766 (including the Sadgops, the most numerous caste in the District, of whom there are 109,630); of artisan and trading castes, 99,686. The proportion of males in the District population is 48·1 per cent., and of females, 51·9 per cent.; the preponderance of females being due to the fact that a large number of the male inhabitants seek employment in Calcutta and elsewhere, leaving their families behind. The number of male children under twelve in Bírbhúm is 115,969, and of female children, 102,682. The population is entirely rural, the only large town being Surí, the administrative headquarters, which has a population of 9001. There are 2113 villages containing fewer than five hundred inhabitants; 294 with from five hundred to a thousand; and 70 with from one to four thousand.

The most interesting place in the District is Rájnagar or Nagar, the ancient Hindu capital of Bírbhúm. The town has now fallen into decay, and the old palace is fast crumbling to ruins, but considerable portions of the famous wall or entrenchment built to protect the city from the Marhattás still remain. This wall was from 12 to 18 feet high; it was surrounded by a ditch, and extended in an irregular and broken line round Nagar for a distance of more than 30 miles, its average distance

from the town being about 4 miles. Many parts of it have now been washed level with the ground by the annual rains. Among other places of interest in Bírbhúm are—GANUTIA on the north bank of the Mor, the centre of the important silk industry of the District; ILAMBAZAR and DUBRAJPUR, considerable trading villages; SURUL, now a village of no importance, but once a large and flourishing town where the greater part of the Company's District trade was centred; KENDULI, the birth-place of the poet Jayadeva, in whose house 50,000 persons assemble at the annual fair in February; and Tántipára, near which are the hot springs already mentioned. Bolpur, Ahmadpur, Synthia, and Mallarpur are rapidly rising in importance as stations on the East Indian Railway, and attracting much of the trade which formerly went by water.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in Bírbhúm, as throughout the rest of Bengal, is rice. During the last quarter of a century the area under this staple has greatly extended, by the reclamation of large tracts of jungle land. It has been roughly estimated that at present fifteen-sixteenths of the tilled land in the District is under this crop. The *áus* or autumn crop is reaped in August and September, the ordinary *áman* or winter crop in November and December; an earlier variety of *áman* in the beginning of November. Speaking roughly, ordinary rice land, which pays a rental of 9s. an acre, yields from 13 to 17½ cwts. of paddy or husked rice per acre, valued at £1, 10s. to £2, 2s. 8d.; land paying 18s. an acre, gives an out-turn in paddy and wheat, valued at £3, 16s. to £4, 10s. an acre. Among the other crops cultivated in Bírbhúm, are sugar-cane, *pán*, gram, peas, and oil-seeds. Manure is in general use throughout the District; the quantity of cow-dung required for rice land being about 45 cwts. per acre, valued at 6s.; while sugar-cane land requires five times that quantity. Irrigation is effected from tanks, which are very numerous in the District. A large proportion of the cultivators hold their lands with rights of occupancy, and, as a rule, they are not in debt. The prices of food-grain have greatly increased of late years. In 1788, ordinary rice was selling at 2s. 10d. a cwt.; in 1872, the price was 3s. 5½d. per cwt. It is noticeable, however, that the price of rice of the finest quality, of which there is little consumption, has not altered, being both in 1788 and 1872, 4s. 3d. per cwt. The current rates of wages for coolies or ordinary day-labourers is 8s. a month; for carpenters, 16s.; for bricklayers, 16s. to £1; and for blacksmiths, 16s. to £1, 4s. a month.

Natural Calamities.—The District is not liable to droughts, floods, or other natural calamities, although it has occasionally suffered from scanty rainfall. During the famine of 1866, the highest price of common rice in Bírbhúm was 15s. 8d. per cwt., and of paddy, 6s. 10d. per cwt. The means of communication and transit throughout the District are amply sufficient to allow of easy importation in case of

scarcity, and to prevent the dangers of any tract being isolated. The roads are good and sufficiently numerous, and the East India Railway runs through the District from north to south.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal manufacture of Bírbhúm is silk, which is produced in the eastern part of the District; the village of Ganutía, on the north bank of the Mor, being the headquarters of the industry. Here is the factory which, established nearly a century ago by Mr. Frushard, under a contract for the supply of silk to the East India Company, is now owned by a large English firm in Calcutta, and gives employment to about 15,000 people. The story of the annoyances to which this pioneer of silk cultivation was exposed at the hands of the Company's officers, and the manner in which he was defrauded by the Rájá, will be found at length in the *Annals of Rural Bengal.*[1] It can only be briefly stated here that, being charged for the land he bought more than four times its market value, he soon got into arrears with the Rájá, who made his non-payment an excuse for being himself behind with his land tax. The Collector could not distrain the factory lands, as such a step would have interfered with the regular supply of the silk investment, and Mr. Frushard secured himself from arrest by living beyond his jurisdiction. The case was at length brought before the Court of Directors; and eventually Lord Cornwallis, in 1791, ordered that all his past arrears should be forgiven, that his rent should for the future be reduced by nearly one-half, and that the Collector should deduct whatever this sum amounted to from the land tax payable by the Rájá. Since that time things have gone smoothly, and Mr. Frushard's factory, several times renewed, is now one of the most important buildings in the District. The annual outlay averages £72,000, and the yearly value of the general silk manufactures exceeds £160,000. The silk is usually sold in a raw state, and finds its way to the Calcutta and European markets. The factory at Ganutiá is surrounded by numbers of smaller filatures, the silk reeled in these being either consumed in the local manufacture of piece-goods, or sent to Murshidábád, and the silk-consuming towns of the North-West Provinces and the Punjab; a portion of it also going to Bombay. *Tasar* silk is manufactured in the western parts of the District, and at Ilámbázár on the north bank of the Ajái. Four varieties of silkworm are known in Bírbhúm, the best silk being obtained from the *bara palu*, an annual worm. A full account of the breeding and rearing of this caterpillar will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol. iv. p. 374 *seq.*). Cotton-weaving is carried on to a considerable extent, giving employment to 7500 cotton-weavers. The preparation of indigo and shell-lac are among the other industries, and attempts have recently been made to utilize the local supply of iron. The ores have long been worked on the rough

[1] *Annals of Rural Bengal.* By W. W. Hunter. Vol. i. p. 357 *seq.*, 5th edition.

native mode of smelting; and the object of the recent attempts was to ascertain whether more extended operations might not be profitably carried out according to European processes, under competent supervision. Although the iron produced seems to have been of good quality and well suited for manufacturing purposes, the experiment was not a financial success, and the enterprise dropped.

Administration.—In consequence of the numerous changes which have from time to time taken place in the area of Bírbhúm District, it is impossible to compare with any accuracy the revenue and expenditure at different periods; but the figures at our disposal show, in a very distinct way, the prosperity which the District has enjoyed under British rule. In 1790-91, the net revenue of the District, which then consisted of Bírbhúm (including the greater part of the Santál Parganás) and Bishnupur, was £108,270, and the net civil expenditure £6281. At the time of the Permanent Settlement (1793), Bishnupur or Bánkurá was separated from Bírbhúm, and in 1820-21 the revenue had fallen to £78,248, the expenditure being £11,930. In 1850-51, the revenue was £89,300, and the expenditure £23,719. In 1860-61, the revenue amounted to £93,795, and the expenditure to £23,207. Subsequent to 1860 the area of the District was further reduced by the transfer of several *parganás*, but the revenue and expenditure continued to increase, and in 1870-71 the total net revenue was £102,841, or nearly the same as that of the united District in 1790, while the net civil expenditure was £28,054, or more than four times what it was in 1790. In 1790-91, the joint land revenue of Bírbhúm and Bánkurá amounted to £106,071; in 1870-71, the land revenue of Bírbhúm alone was £73,558. With the increasing prosperity of the District, the machinery for the protection of person and property has been improved. The police force employed for this purpose in 1872 consisted of (1) a regular police, composed of 1 superior and 53 subordinate officers and 205 constables; (2) a small municipal force of 1 native officer and 23 men for the protection of Surí; and (3) a village watch of 6824 men: total, 7107 officers and men, or 1 man to every 98 of the population. The estimated aggregate cost of maintaining the entire force was £18,818 per annum, equal to 6½d. per head of the population. In 1872, 1112 persons were convicted of 'cognisable' or 'non-cognisable' offences, or 1 person to every 627 of the population. There are eight *thánás* or police circles in the District, namely—Surí, Rájnagar, Dubrájpur, Kasbá, Sákulipur, Lábhpur, Barwán, and Maureswar. There are two jails in Bírbhúm, one at Surí, and the other (a lock-up) at Synthia. The daily average jail population in 1872 was 275·83, or 1 person always in jail to every 2526 of the population of the District. Education has made rapid progress of late years. In 1856-57, there were only 3 Government and aided schools in the whole District; by 1872-73, the number of Government and aided

schools had risen to 129, attended by 4439 pupils. In addition to these, there were 17 inspected unaided schools, attended by 445 pupils, and about 550 uninspected, with an estimated attendance of more than 7000 more. The total number of pupils attending inspected schools in that year was 4884, or 1 to every 143 of the population.

Medical Aspects.—The mean annual temperature of Bírbhúm, according to the latest calculation, is 77·25° F., and the average annual rainfall 54 inches. The District has long been famous for its salubrity; but unhappily within the last few years the epidemic fever of Bardwán, after effecting so much devastation in adjoining Districts, has extended to Bírbhúm, causing great mortality. An account of this fever will be found in the article on BARDWAN. The only endemic diseases prevalent in the District are leprosy and elephantiasis; cholera has of late years become more general.

Bírchigáon.—Mountain pass in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; on the route from Almora by the river Gori and the Antá Dhára Pass to South-Western Thibet. Lat. 30° 12′ N., long. 80° 17′ E. Distant 114 miles north-east of Almora. Lies over the skirts of two peaks, with heights of 18,166 and 19,225 feet above the sea respectively; elevation of crest of pass, about 15,000 feet.

Bírganj.—Village and police station in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the Dhápá, a tributary of the Purnabhábá river. Lat. 25° 51′ 30″ N., long. 88° 41′ 40″ E. Considerable local trade.

Bírgáon.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 27° 6′ N., long. 84° 11′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 5920.

Birhar.—*Parganá* in Faizábád (Fyzabad) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the river Gogra, separating it from Basti District in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by Azamgarh District; and on the south and west by Surharpur, Akbarpur, and Tánda *parganás.* Picturesquely studded with clumps of bamboos, and groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. Area, 218 square miles, of which 130 are cultivated. Of the 392 villages which constitute the *parganá*, no less than 376 form the Birhar estate, held by four Palwár Rájput proprietors, paying an aggregate Government land revenue of £14,289, out of a total of £15,442. All the villages except 12 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure. Pop., according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes of area—Hindus, 101,730; Muhammadans, 12,571; total, 114,301, viz. 58,543 males and 55,758 females. Bráhmans comprise 25 per cent. of the population; Kshattriyas, 20 per cent.; Koris and Kurmís, altogether 15 per cent.; other Hindus, 30 per cent.; Muhammadans 10 per cent. Markets held in 14 villages.

Biriá.—Agricultural town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 84° 31′ 35″ E.; area, 44 acres; pop. (1872), 5589.

Bírkul (*Beercool*).—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal; situated on the sea-coast in the south of the District, close to the north boundary of Balasor. Lat. 21° 40′ 40″ N., long. 87° 32′ E. Bírkul has long been known as a pleasant hot weather retreat from Calcutta, and was a favourite resort of Warren Hastings. Proposals have been put forth to make the place a summer sanitarium, but no practical steps have yet been taken to that end. There is a delightful sea-breeze, and the only drawback is scarcity of fresh water, which has to be brought from a considerable distance, and even then is not entirely free from brackishness. Bírkul is distant about 26 miles by road from the Subdivisional station of Kánthi (Contai).

Bírkul.—Embankment in Midnapur District, Bengal; commences at Khádálgobrá village in Bírkul *parganá*, and, running generally parallel with the coast line of the Bay of Bengal for a distance of 41 miles, terminates at the village of Syámchak in Keorámal *parganá*.

Bírnagar (or *Ulá*).—Municipal town in Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 14′ 30″ N., long. 88° 36′ 10″ E. Estimated pop. in 1869, 4499; number of houses, 1995. Municipal income in 1869, £272. A festival lasting three days, and attended by 10,000 pilgrims, is held here in June, in honour of the goddess Ulái Chandí, the goddess of cholera, one of the forms of the wife of Siva.

Bírpur.—Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated on the Nepál frontier. Lat. 26° 32′ N., long. 87° 3′ E.; pop. about 3660. A brisk trade was formerly carried on here; but the place is fast losing its importance, as the merchants, fearing that further inroads of the Kúsí river may carry away their storehouses, are gradually abandoning the village.

Birsilpur.—Town in Jáisalmir (Jeysulmere) State, Rájputána; on the route from Baháwalpur to Bap, 90 miles south-east of the former. Lat. 28° 11′ 20″ N., long. 72° 15′ 5″ E.; pop. 2000. The town is said to have been founded in the 2nd century; it contains a small fort, completely commanded by a high sandhill a mile to the south-west.

Birúdánkaráyapúram.—The ancient capital of the Chálukya kings, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. The present village of Bikkavólu, which occupies the old site, abounds in ruins of the former town. —*See* VENGI.

Birúpá.—River of Cuttack District, Bengal; an offshoot from the left or north bank of the Mahánadi, from which river it branches opposite the town of Cuttack. After flowing north-east for about 15 miles, nearly parallel with the Calcutta road, it throws off from its right bank the Gengutí, which, after receiving the waters of the Kelo, again falls into the Birúpá. The river afterwards joins the Bráhmaní, and its waters ultimately find their way into the Bay of Bengal by the Dhámrá estuary.

Birur.—Mart and municipality in Kádur District, Mysore, on the Bangalore-Shimoga road. Lat. 13° 36′ 10″ N., long. 76° 0′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 3617, being 3254 Hindus, 361 Muhammadans, and 2 Jains; number of houses, 629. Large traffic in cocoa-nuts, areca-nuts, grain, and other produce; annual value of transactions, nearly £50,000. Municipal revenue in 1874-75, £111; incidence of taxation, 7⅓d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Bisalnagar.—Town in the Gáekwár's territories, Bombay; on the route from Mhow (Mhau) to Dísá, 220 miles north-west of former, 50 miles south-west of latter. Lat. 23° 2′ 20″ N., long. 72° 42′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 18,000. Considerable transit trade in iron and other heavy goods for Marwar. Manufacture of cotton cloth.

Bisalpur.—*Tahsíl* of Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 370 square miles, of which 239 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 205,538; land revenue, £30,793; total revenue, £32,391; rental paid by cultivators, £51,651; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 7⅛d.

Bisalpur.—Municipal town in Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl;* distant 24 miles east from Bareli, and 3 miles east of the river Deoha. Lat. 28° 17′ 35″ N., long. 79° 50′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 9250; area, 142 acres. Charitable dispensary; court of *munsif.* Municipal income in 1875-76, £433; from taxes, £328, or 8⅝d. per head of population (9335) within municipal limits.

Bisauli.—*Tahsíl* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Area, 343 square miles, of which 289 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 185,372; land revenue, £21,278; total revenue, £23,302; rental paid by cultivators, £49,196; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11¼d.

Bisauli.—Town in Kashmir State, Punjab; situate on the river Rávi, at the foot of the southern Himálayan chain. Lat. 32° 33′ N., long. 75° 28′ E. Large irregular *bázár;* handsome palace of the Rájá, moated and turreted like a mediæval castle.

Bisáwar.—Town in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the road from Kandauli to Muttra, 6 miles north of the Jumna. Lat. 27° 23′ 30″ N., long. 77° 56′ 30″ E.; area, 66 acres; pop. (1872), 5221. Originally surrounded by dense jungle, of which 700 acres still remain; partly cleared about 900 A.D. by Rám Sen Ját, whose descendants still hold four-fifths of the village lands. Agricultural centre of little commercial importance.

Bishanpur Narhan Khás.—Village in Darbhanga District, Bengal; situated near the west bank of the Little Gandak. Lat. 25° 42′ N., long. 86° 3′ E.; pop. (1872), 5366, comprising 5191 Hindus, 172 Muhammadans, and 3 Christians; number of males, 2707—females,

2659. Contains a staging-house and a stone temple dedicated to Siva, built by a relative of the Mahárájá of Benares, who has a residence here, and helps to support an aided school in the village. Road to Dalsinh-sarái and Ruserá. Two fairs are held during the year.

Bishenpur.—Town in Bánkurá District, Bengal.—*See* BISHNUPUR.

Bíshkhálí.—A river of the Bákarganj Sundarbans, Bengal. Flows from north-east to south-west, from Nayámatí Hát to the sea, a distance of 45 miles; average width in dry season, 1000 yards. Lat. 21° 59′ 45″–22° 34′ 15″ N., long. 90° 2′ 45″–90° 24′ E. Navigable by native boats throughout the year.

Bishnupur (*Bishenpore*).—The ancient capital of Bánkurá District, Bengal, under its native Rájás; now a muncipality, and the most populous town in the District; situated a few miles south of the Dhalkisor river. Lat. 23° 4′ 40″ N., long. 87° 22′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 18,047, comprising 17,436 Hindus and 611 Muhammadans; number of males, 8869—females, 9178. Number of houses, 4007; persons per house, 4·5. Municipal income in 1871, £273; incidence of municipal taxation, 3⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits. Bishnupur is one of the principal seats of commerce in Bánkurá District. Chief exports—rice, oil-seeds, lac, cotton and silk cloth, silk cocoons, etc.; imports—English piece-goods, salt, tobacco, spices, cocoa-nuts, pulses, etc.; there are several market-places in the town. It contains a large weaving population, and is noted for the manufacture of cotton and silk cloths of fine quality. Besides the usual public offices, there are several schools, a number of Hindu temples, and some Muhammadan mosques. The military high road from Calcutta to the North-Western Provinces passes through the town. Ancient Bishnupur, if we may put any trust in the native chroniclers, was a magnificent city, 'more beautiful than the beautiful house of Indra in heaven.' It was fortified by a connected line of curtains and bastions, 7 miles in length, with small circular ravelins covering many of the curtains. The citadel lies within the fortifications, and here was situated the palace of the Rájás. The ruins are very curious and interesting. Near the south gateway are the remains of an extensive series of granaries; and inside the fort, which is overgrown with jungle, lies an immense iron gun 12½ feet long, the gift, according to tradition, of a deity to one of the Rájás.

Bison Range (native name, *Pápi-Konda*).—The highest part of the hills, which form the northern frontier of Godávari District, Madras. Height, 4200 feet. Situated to the west of the magnificent gorge by which the Godávari enters the District, the range is remarkable for its fine scenery and abundance of large game; its sides are clothed with luxuriant teak forest.

Bisrámpur.—Village in Sargújá Tributary State, Chutiá Nágpur. Lat. 23° 2′ N., long. 83° 14′ 10″ E. The residence of the chief,

Maháráj á Indrajit Sinh. Contains a school supported by the Rájá and the principal landholders. A weekly market is held in the village, attended only by people living in the immediate neighbourhood.

Bisrámpur Coal-Field.—The name given to an area of coal measure rocks, situated in the eastern portion of the comparatively low-lying ground in the centre of Sargújá State, Chutiá Nágpur. It occupies an area of about 400 square miles, throughout which, except in the river-beds or their immediate neighbourhood, and on a few small hills, no rocks are exposed, a covering of alluvium concealing all. Good coal exists in abundance, and in a suitable condition for working, but borings (which could alone furnish facts sufficiently trustworthy for estimating the extent and thickness of individual seams, and generally the total amount of coal existing in the field) have not yet been made. It seems very improbable that this hill-surrounded area will ever be the seat of mining enterprise. A detailed account of the field has been given by Mr. V. Ball, from whose paper, quoted in the Statistical Account of Bengal, vol. xvii. pp. 225-228, the above information is taken.

Bissemkatak.—Town in Jáipur estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 19° 30′ 30″ N., long. 83° 33′ E.; houses, 400; pop. (1871), 1123, principally retainers and servants of the Tát Rájá, the feudatory at the head of the military force of Jáipur. The only buildings of any importance are the Rájá's fort, an erection of mud, and the public gymnasium. The inhabitants being suspected of the practice of human sacrifice, this town was included in the proscribed circle of the Meriah Agency in 1851.—*See* JAIPUR.

Bissemkatak.—One of the 7 Kandh *muttas* of Vizagapatam District, Madras, proscribed by the officers of the Meriah Agency in 1851 as addicted to human sacrifice. It contains 149 villages divided into 8 *sub-muttas* — Kanakaladi, Jigada, Sogata, Kojiri, Ambodalu, Bhangoda, Jagdalpur, and Kutragoda. Situated west of Rayabigi, in the highly cultivated country of the Deshya or 'outer' Kandhs (as distinguished from the Kotiya or mountaineer Kandhs, who inhabit only 18 out of the 149 villages), with Bissemkatak, the capital of the Tát Rájá, as its chief town. All the villages are under supervision. The *táluk* enjoys considerable trade, exporting grain, tobacco, and unrefined sugar in exchange for iron, cloths, and salt.

Bissli.—Pass in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 12° 44′ N., long. 75° 41′ E. Formerly of some importance as connecting Mangalore with Seringapatam, but now fallen into disrepair, and practicable for pack-bullocks only. As being the shortest route to Subramani, where a great annual fair is held, the cattle-breeders on the other side use this route. A village of the same name stands at one end of the pass, on the road from Bangalore to Mangalore; lat. 12° 45′ N., long. 75° 45′ E.

Biswán.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded north by Nighásan, east by Bahraich, south by Bári, and west by Sítápur *tahsíls.* Area, 597 square miles, of which 397 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 214,433; Muhammadans, 29,595; total, 244,028, viz. 128,806 males and 115,222 females. Number of villages or towns, 509; average density of population, 426 per square mile. The *tahsíl* comprises the 3 *parganás* of Biswán, Tambaur, and Kundri (North).

Biswán.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Láharpur and Tambaur, on the east by Kundri, on the south by Mahmudábád and Bári, and on the west by Pírnagar and Khairábád. The land in the east of the *parganá* is very low, and much cut up by small streams leading to the Chauka, which marks the boundary line. West of this lies a rich tract of country, always green, owing to the proximity of water to the surface, and bearing fine crops. A high ridge of land, which appears to have formed once the right bank of the Chauka, runs through the *parganá.* The extreme west lies high. Area, 220⅝ square miles, or 141,056 acres, of which 100,508 are cultivated and 20,300 cultivable but not under tillage. Of the 215 villages composing the *parganá*, 99 are held under *tálukdárí* and 116 under *zamíndárí* tenure: 81 villages are owned by Rájput landlords, 57 by Muhammadans, 46 by Káyasths, and 29 by Seth Kshattriyas. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 87,197; Muhammadans, 17,958; total, 105,155, viz. 55,262 males and 49,893 females; average density of population, 478 per square mile. Bi-weekly markets held in 16 villages.

Biswán.—Principal town in the *tahsíl* of the same name, Sítápur District, Oudh; 21 miles east of Sítápur, on the road to Gonda and Faizábád. Lat. 27° 29′ N., long. 81° 2′ E. Said to have been founded about 500 years ago, by an ascetic named Biswánáth; pop. (1869), including Jalálpur, 7308, of whom more than one-half are Hindus, principally Bráhmans, or belonging to artisan castes. Daily market; average annual sales, £15,000. Principal buildings—palace, mosque, tomb, and caravansarai, erected by one Shaikh Bári; 21 Muhammadan mosques; 17 Hindu temples. The Government buildings consist of the usual courts, police station, post office, registration office, school.

Bithar.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 10 miles south-east of Unao town, on the road from that place to Rái Bareli. Lat. 26° 25′ 20″ N., long. 80° 36′ 25″ E. The headquarters of the Ráwat tribe, who formerly owned the whole of the large *parganá* of Harha, in which the village is situated. Pop. (1869), 3229, of whom 1949 are Bráhmans. Ten Sivaite temples; bi-weekly market; Government school.

Bithúr.—Town in Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the south bank of the Ganges, 12 miles north-west of Cawnpore City. Lat. 26° 36′ 50″ N., long. 80° 19′ E.; pop. (1872),

8322. Picturesque front facing the river, adorned by *gháts* or bathing steps, temples, and handsome residences. The principal *ghát*, built by Rájá Tikáit Rái, minister of Ghází-ud-dín Haidar, Nawáb of Oudh, with an imposing Saracenic arcade on its upper platform, is known as the Bráhma *ghat*, being sacred to that god; and a bathing fair is held there on the full moon in November. Báji Ráo, the last of the Peshwás, was banished to Bithúr, and had extensive palaces in the town. His adopted son, Dandhu Panth, better known as the Náná Sáhib, was the instigator of the massacre at CAWNPORE. The town was captured by Havelock's force on the 19th of July 1857, when the Náná's palaces were utterly destroyed; but he himself succeeded in making good his escape. On the 16th of August, after Havelock's first unsuccessful attempt to reach Lucknow, Bithúr was once more retaken, and never again lost. Its population and importance have greatly declined since the extinction of its local court. Large numbers of Bráhmans reside in the town, and superintend the bathing festivals.

Bitraganta.—Town in the Kavali *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. The annual fair held here in honour of Venkateswaraswámí attracts 4000 persons. Weaving forms the chief industry of the place.

Black Pagoda.—Ruined temple in Purí District, Orissa.—*See* KANARAK.

Blue Mountain.—Principal peak (7100 feet high) in the Yoma range, at the north-west of Akyab District, British Burma, lat. 22° 37′ N., and long. 93° 10′ E.

Boálmárí.—Trading village in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the Barásiá river. Lat. 23° 23′ N., long. 89° 48′ 30″ E. Chief trade—rice, piece-goods, country cloth, cotton twist, yarns, and tobacco. Estimated pop. 1000.

Bobbili.—An estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 22′ to 18° 46′ N., long. 83° 10′ to 83° 20′ E.; area, 120 square miles, containing 203 villages, with 31,816 houses, and (1871) 154,443 inhabitants, almost all Hindus. Surrounded by the British *táluks* of Chipurpalle, Vizianágram, Sálúr, Palkonda, and Bobbili. It consists of 3 *parganás*, Bobbili, Rájam, and Kávite, and yields to its owner a revenue of £37,500 per annum. Of this, £9000 is paid to Government as tribute or *peshkash*. This estate is one of the most ancient in the Presidency, and possesses an interesting history. When in 1652, Sher Muhammad Khán, the Nawáb of CHICACOLE, entered the District, there followed in his train two rivals—the one Peddaráyudu, the ancestor of the present chief of Bobbili, the other the ancestor of the Vizianágram family; and from this time dates the rivalry between the two houses. Peddaráyudu soon after received, in reward for gallantry, the estate of Rájam, where he built a fort, naming it Bobbili (the

royal tiger), in honour of his patron's designation, Sher (tiger). This estate bordered on Vizianágram, and the ill feeling between the chiefs was fomented by constant embroilment. In 1756, the turbulence of the Poligars called for measures of repression, and M. Bussy marched with a European force to restore order. On his reaching Vizianágram, the Rájá assured him that the chief of Bobbili was the instigator of all disturbances, and to testify his own loyalty, joined the French with a force of 11,000 men to assist in crushing his rival. Before attacking him, Bussy offered the chief a pardon for the past, and lands of equal value elsewhere, if he would abandon his ancestral estate; but the offer was refused. The attack on the fort of Bobbili is one of the most memorable in Indian history. At daybreak, the field-pieces began to play on the mud defences, practicable breaches were at once made, and the assault sounded. After four hours' desperate fighting hand to hand, Bussy called off his men to allow the cannon to widen the breaches. A second assault was then ordered, but with no better results, for not a man had gained footing within the ramparts when, five hours later, Bussy again withdrew the storming party to repeat the argument of artillery. The defenders now recognised their desperate position, and collecting their wives and families, put them to death, and returned to their posts. The assault soon recommenced; and when at sunset Bussy entered the fort as victor with the remnant of his army, it was only because every man of the garrison was dead or desperately wounded. An old man, however, crept from a hut, and leading a child to Bussy, presented him as the son of the dead chief. Four other men had preserved their lives; and two nights later, when the Vizianágram camp was buried in sleep, they crept into the Rájá's tent, and before the sentries had discovered and shot down the assassins, they had stabbed the Rájá to death with thirty-two wounds.

The child Chinna Ránga Ráo, saved from the slaughter, was invested by Bussy with the chiefship of the lands that had been offered to his father; but before he attained his majority, his uncle regained by force of arms the former estate of Rájam. At last the Vizianágram family compromised with their rivals, and leased to them the Kávite and Rájam *parganás*. The old feud, however, again broke out, and the Bobbili chief fled into the Nizám's country. But in 1794, when the Vizianágram estate was dismembered, Chinna Ránga Ráo was restored by the British to his father's domains, and in 1801 a permanent settlement was concluded with his son at an annual tribute of £9000. Since then the peace of the estate has been undisturbed.

Bobbili.—Town in the Bobbili estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 34′ N., long. 83° 25′ E.; houses, 3112; pop. (1871), 14,166. Situated about 70 miles north-west of Vizagapatam. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, it possesses a sub-magistrate's court, dispensary,

school, etc. A fortified enclosure in the centre of the town surrounds the temple and the residence of the chief.—*See* BOBBILI ESTATE, *supra.*

Bod.—The most westerly of the Tributary States of Orissa, lying between 20° 13′ and 20° 53′ 30″ N. lat., and between 83° 36′ 45″ and 84° 50′ E. long.; area, including the KANDH-MALS, 2064 square miles; pop. (1872), 108,868. The State is bounded on the north by the Mahánadi river, separating it from Sonpur State in the Central Provinces, and from Athmallik State; on the east by Daspallá; on the south by the Madras States of Goomsur (Gumsar) and Kimidi; and on the west by Patna and Sonpur States in the Central Provinces, from which it is separated by the Tel river. Bod is under the supervision of the Commissioner of Cuttack and the Government of Bengal. To the south of Bod proper are the Kandh Hills, now under British management, but formerly feudatory to the Bod Rájá. The tract comprising the Kandh-máls, which now forms an integral part of Bod State, consists of a broken plateau intersected by ridges of low hills, the last refuge of the Kandh race. The principal hills in the State are—Bondigárá on the southern border, 3308 feet high; Bankomundí, 2080 feet; and Siánángá, 1917 feet.

The population of Bod, including the Kandh-máls, numbers 108,868 persons, comprising 59,046 Hindus (or 54·2 per cent. of the population), 102 Muhammadans, and 49,720 'others,' chiefly aborigines; total number of males, 56,073—females, 52,795. Average density of population, 53 per square mile. Number of villages, 1542; number of houses, 22,080; villages per square mile, ·74; houses per square mile, 11; persons per village, 70; persons per house, 4·9. Separate details of the population, etc., of the Kandh-máls will be found in the article on that tract. The following are the figures for Bod proper without the Kandh-máls:—Number of villages, 716; number of houses, 11,269. Pop. (1872), 57,058, comprising 42,573 Hindus, 91 Muhammadans, and 14,394 'others'; number of males, 29,517—females, 27,541. The population is ethnically divided as follows:—Aboriginal tribes, 13,482 (23·8 per cent. of the population), consisting almost entirely of Kandhs (12,019); semi-aboriginal castes, 6906, almost all Páns (5273); Hindus and people of Hindu origin, 36,579 (or 64·1 per cent. of the population), the most numerous castes being Damál and Magadhá Goálás (of whom there are 13,422), Súds (4356), and Keuts (3151); Muhammadans, 91.

The Mahánadi, which forms the northern boundary of the State, and the Tel, which borders it on the west, afford excellent facilities for water carriage; but except a little *sál* timber, none of the produce of the country is exported. Weekly markets are held at eight villages, the principal commodities sold being coarse rice, oil-seeds, and jungle products. The largest and most important village, and the residence of

the Rájá, is Bod (lat. 29° 50′ 20″ N., long. 84° 21′ 41″ E.), in the north of the State on the right bank of the Mahánadi, 190 miles from the sea. The only other village of any size is Jagatigarh.

The State yields an estimated revenue of £700 a year to its chief; the tribute to the British Government is £80. The reigning family claims an uninterrupted descent from a stranger who founded the petty principality about a thousand years ago; they are Kshattriyás of the solar race. The Rájá's militia in Bod proper consists of 22 men, and his police force is of the same strength. He maintains a school.

Bodá.—An extensive *zamíndárí* (estate) belonging to the Rájá of Kuch Behar State, Bengal. Area, 475 square miles; number of villages, 90; number of houses, 24,420. Pop. (1872), 141,507, of whom 73,118 are males and 68,389 females. Average density of population, 298 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·19; houses per square mile, 51; persons per village, 1572; persons per house, 5·8. Chief town, with residence of Rájá, Bodá; lat. 26° 12′ N., long. 88° 38′ E.

Bodanoness.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya in Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of one village, with one independent tribute-payer. Lat. 21° 24′ 0″ N., long. 71° 50′ 0″ E.; estimated revenue (1876), £105, of which £10 is payable as British tribute.

Bodh Gayá.—*See* BUDDH GAYA.

Bodináyakanúr.—Estate in Madura District, Madras. Area, 98 square miles, containing 21 villages and hamlets, with 6509 houses, and (1871) 34,497 inhabitants. Situated in the valley between the Travancore and Paláni ranges, watered by the Teni river. This estate was one of the original 72 Naiakais Palayam of Madura, the family having emigrated from Gúti (Gooty) in 1336 A.D. It was resumed by Haidar Alí in 1776, and after an interval of semi-independence, again reduced by Tipú. The Rájá of Travancore subsequently seized the estate, but in 1793 the Bódináyakanúr chief recovered possession. When in 1795 the Company's officers proceeded to the settlement of the District, they were resisted by the chief of Bódináyakanúr, and the party was fired upon. It was one of the largest of the 24 Palayams then settled, containing 30 villages, and yielding about £2400 per annum. Annual tribute paid to Government, £1534.

Bodináyakanúr.—Town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° 0′ 50″ N., long. 77° 25′ 0″ E.; pop. (1871), 13,154; houses, 2608. Situated 65 miles west of Madura. The headquarters (*kasbá*) of a large estate of the same name.

Bodwad. — Town in Khandesh District, Bombay. Lat. 20° 52′ 15″ N., long. 76° 2′ 0″ E. Situated on the main road from Aurangábád to Burhánpur, 80 miles north-east of Aurangábád, and 2 miles south of the Nargund station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Important trade in cotton, linseed, and other oil-seeds; post office.

Bogoola.—Village in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* BAGULA.

Bogra (*Bagurá*).—A British District occupying the east central portion of the Rájsháhí Kuch-Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 24° 32′ 15″ and 25° 18′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 54′ 15″ and 89° 48′ 0″ E. long., its eastern boundary being roughly formed by the main channel of the Brahmaputra; area in 1875, 1491 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 689,476 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at BOGRA town on the Karátoyá river.

Physical Aspect.—The District presents the usual appearance of an alluvial tract, consisting of one level plain, seamed with river beds and studded with marshes. It naturally divides into two portions of unequal size, an eastern tract forming part of the valley of the Brahmaputra, and closely resembling the country in Maimansinh on the opposite bank; and a western and larger portion, which merges into the undulating clay lands of Dinájpur. Both these tracts are profoundly modified by the fluvial action of the great streams which flow through or over them; but the boundary between the two constitutes an important landmark in the geographical system of Bengal. The soil of the Brahmaputra valley is pure alluvion of a whitish colour, locally called *palí*, the recent deposit of the river floods. In the western tract the soil is a stiff clay of a reddish colour, known as *khiár*, which rests upon a lower stratum of sand; the country is generally above flood level, and much overgrown with scrub jungle. In this region are situated the peculiar plots of mulberry-land, which are raised by trenching and embankment above the danger of inundation.

The river system is constituted by the numerous channels of the great river of Rangpur, which is variously known as the TISTA or Atrái. The BRAHMAPUTRA itself, locally termed the Dáokobá or Hatchet-cut, only fringes the eastern frontier of the District as far as the junction of the MANAS, below which a small portion of the farther bank is included within the Bográ jurisdiction. The other rivers of the District are the JAMUNA, NAGAR, KARATOYA or PHULJUR, BANGALI, and MANAS. Most of these intermingle with one another by cross streams; and they fall ultimately either into the Atrái, or directly into the Brahmaputra. They are all portions of the same drainage system, and their comparative importance is so variable that it would be useless to describe the course of any particular channel in any given year. Historically, the Karátoyá was the main river which brought down towards the Ganges the great volume of Tístá water, before the disastrous floods of 1787. The width of its former bed is still pointed out, and numerous local traditions bear witness to its early importance. At present, it is one of the minor rivers of the District, and but little used for navigation.

History.—Bográ has no political history of its own. The District was

first formed in 1821, out of certain *thánás* or police divisions taken from Rájsháhí, Dinájpur, and Rangpur. It was found necessary at that time to provide additional facilities for the administration of criminal justice in these outlying tracts, which could not be properly supervised from the headquarters of their several Districts. This region, also, was then rising into notice as a remunerative field for European enterprise, in the form of indigo planting and silk winding. For these reasons a Joint Magistrate was stationed at Bográ town, in whom only criminal jurisdiction was vested. The duties of revenue collection, together with the title of Deputy-Collector, were added in 1832; but it was not till 1859 that Bográ was erected into an independent District with a Magistrate-Collector of its own. Even at the present day traces may be found of the gradual growth of the several administrations, and much perplexity still exists with regard to the boundaries of the fiscal and magisterial areas. In accordance with a principle which has long lost its original utility, large estates were permitted, on removal from the criminal supervision of their old Districts, to continue to pay revenue into the parent treasury. The fiscal jurisdiction thus broken up has never been again reunited under a single authority. Again, considerable portions of Bográ were surveyed with the neighbouring Districts to which they had been once attached; and the numerous series of papers, which guarantee the efficiency of local administration, lie scattered at Rámpur Beauleah, Nasírábád, and Dinájpur. In addition to these fundamental causes of confusion, Bográ has experienced its full share of those frequent rectifications of the executive frontier, which so greatly destroy the value of all statistical comparisons throughout Bengal.

The historical interest of the District centres round Mahásthán Garh, and the town of Sherpur. The former place is now a great mound of earth, bounded on one side by the dwindling stream of the Karátoyá, and strewn with bricks and a few carvings in stone. But when the Karátoyá was a great river, Mahásthán was the capital of an early Hindu dynasty, of which numerous traditions still live in the memories of the people. In later times it has become a Muhammadan place of pilgrimage, being associated with the name of Sháh Sultán, a *fakír* who figures prominently in the story of the Musalmán conquest. Sherpur town represents a more trustworthy epoch in Bengal history. It is mentioned by the Mughal chroniclers of the 16th century, and appears under the disguise of 'Ceerpoor Mirts' in the map of Bengal by Von den Broucke, the Dutch Governor of India in 1660. These notices it owed to its importance as a frontier post of the Muhammadans, previous to the establishment of the Nawábs of Dacca. It is now the residence of three Bráhman families, who rank among the wealthiest landholders in the District.

People.—Various early estimates of the number of the population are extant, but it is not known that any of them were based upon trustworthy principles. The most plausible conjecture places the total at 900,000 souls, at a time when the District was larger by about one-third than it is now. The Census of 1872, which seems to have been conducted in Bográ with special carefulness, disclosed a population of 689,467 persons, residing in 2666 *mauzás* or villages, and in 127,099 houses. The area was taken at 1501 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 459; villages per square mile, 1·78; houses per square mile, 85. The average number of persons per village is 259; of persons per house, 5·4. Classified according to sex, there are 347,864 males, and 341,603 females; proportion of males, 50·45 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under twelve years—131,164 males, and 105,781 females: total, 236,945, or 34·3 per cent. of the total population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is returned at 171,420, as against 45,280 male adult non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people shows—15 Europeans; 4 Eurasians; 1 Nepálí; 318 aborigines; 38,339 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 86,154 Hindus, subdivided according to caste; 8016 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 556,620 Muhammadans. It was one of the surprises revealed by the Census that the Musalmáns constitute more than four-fifths of the inhabitants. There can be no doubt that in Bográ, as throughout the rest of the Brahmaputra valley, the great bulk of the people are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority willingly adopted the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining outcastes beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. To those now regarded as aborigines (318 in number) there ought to be added 338 Ghátwáls, classified in the Census Report among the superior Hindu castes, and also 2346 Bunás to be transferred from the semi-Hinduized aborigines. These all alike represent hillmen from Chutiá Nágpur, who have immigrated into the District either to clear the jungle, or to work as labourers on the roads and in European factories. Of the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the three cognate tribes of Koch, Pálí, and Rájbansí make up a total of 15,649 souls; and it is known that many of the Muhammadans belong to the same ethnical stock. Among the Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 4263; the Rájputs, 3426; the Káyasths, 4490. The most numerous caste is the Kaibartta, with 14,833 members; and next, the Sunrí, with 6688. The boating and fishing castes collectively are also strongly represented. Emigration from the District is unknown. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 130,644, or 19·3 per cent.; Musalmáns, 556,620, or 80·7 per cent. The remainder is made

up of 22 Christians, including 3 native converts; and 2181 'others.' The Vaishnavs are included among the Hindus as numbering 8013 persons. The Bráhma Samáj is represented by about 40 followers in Bográ town, who assemble weekly in a meeting-house erected for the purpose. As elsewhere throughout India, the Muhammadans of Bográ belong to the Hanafí sect of Sunnís. A certain proportion of them are said to be indoctrinated with the fanaticism of the reformed Faráizí sect; and, so late as 1871, there was a State prosecution for Wahábí disaffection. The Musalmán fairs and places of pilgrimage are well attended, especially the ceremonies connected with the name of Ghází Miyán.

The population is almost entirely rural. Out of a total of 2666 villages, 2342 each contain less than 500 inhabitants. BOGRA town, with 5872 souls, is the only town with a population exceeding 5000. SHERPUR, which has been referred to above, has only 4229. The comparatively large proportion of Hindus to Musalmáns in both these towns is remarkable. No tendency is observed on the part of the people towards urban life, but rather the reverse.

Agriculture, etc.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District, being especially predominant in the clay tract west of the Karátoyá. The *áman* or winter rice crop, grown on low lands, is estimated to furnish 65 per cent. of the total food supply; and the *áus* or early crop, grown on high lands, about 30 per cent. In the Brahmaputra valley oil-seeds are largely grown, and the cultivation of jute is on the increase. In 1872, the total area under jute was nearly 50,000 acres, chiefly in the police division of Sháriákándí. The cultivation of sugar-cane has fallen off since the early years of the present century. The other crops, which include wheat, barley, *gánjá*, and mulberry, are insignificant. The principle of the rotation of crops is not practised, but fields are occasionally allowed to lie fallow, and jute is never sown on the same land for more than three consecutive years. There is a considerable extent of waste land in most parts of the District, which is now in process of being reclaimed by hillmen from Chutiá Nágpur, in some places under the stimulus of European capital. The rate of rent for rice land varies from 1s. 6d. to 12s. per acre. Special crops, such as mulberry, *gánjá*, and *pán*, pay exceptional rates. The total amount received by the *zamíndárs* under the name of rent is almost universally augmented by the exaction of *áwábs* or customary cesses. There is little that is peculiar in the land tenures of Bográ. At the time of the Permanent Settlement the greater part of the District was in the hands of three families, the Rájá of Dinájpur, the Rájá of Nattor, and the Muhammadan *zamíndár* of Silbarsá. Considerable portions have at one time or another been severed from the revenue-paying estates, and are now held as *lákhiráj*. Old Musalmán endowments of this kind are particularly numerous.

The ordinary rates of wages, and also the prices of food grains, have approximately doubled within the last twenty years. In 1871, coolies and agricultural day-labourers received a little more than 4d. a day; smiths and carpenters about 8d. In the same year, common rice sold at 4s. per cwt. The highest price reached by rice during the scarcity of 1874 was 17s. per cwt., which was recorded in the month of July.

Bográ is liable, to some extent, to the calamity of drought; but a general destruction of the crops from floods is unknown. In 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, the local supply fell short, and not a little distress was caused by the concurrent increase of the exports to other Districts. In 1874, the failure of the rice crop was more severe, but actual suffering was anticipated by the prompt intervention of Government. More than 8000 tons of food grain were imported from Calcutta and Goálandá; and £50,000 in all was expended in relief. Since the opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway, and the completion of a system of minor roads to serve as feeders, every part of Bográ is now sufficiently provided with means of communication to prevent a local scarcity from intensifying into famine.

Manufactures, etc.—The growth and preparation of indigo, which formerly attracted a large amount of European capital, has now entirely disappeared from the District. The industry of silk-spinning still lingers in the neighbourhood of Bográ town, but most of the other filatures have been closed, being unable to compete with the Chinese and Mediterranean producers. The manufacture of a coarse paper from jute is conducted in a few villages. The East India Company is said to have established its silk factories at Bográ in the first decade of this century, and to have annually distributed £50,000 in the shape of advances to the rearers of cocoons. The Company abandoned manufacture on its own account in 1834.

River traffic is brisk in all parts of the District. The chief exports are—rice, jute, mustard-seed, sugar, hides, tobacco, and *gánjá*. The imports are—salt, piece-goods, pulses, spices, brass ware, cocoa-nuts, and betel-nuts. The principal marts are—Hillí, Damdamá, Jamálganj, Báluchárá, Naugáon, and Dubálhátí, on the Jamuná river; Gobindganj, Fakírganj, Gumáníganj, Síbganj, Sultánganj, and Sherpur, on the Karátoyá; Dhúpchánchiá on the Nágar. Some of these are situated just beyond the District boundaries, but the business of all is chiefly concerned with Bográ produce. According to the registration returns for the year 1876-77, the total exports from the District were valued at £247,479; the imports at £85,990. In addition, it is supposed that a large portion of the Bográ trade, especially in the case of imports, is credited to the neighbouring Districts of Pábná and Rájsháhí. The chief exports were—rice, 584,000 *maunds*, and paddy, 46,100 *maunds*,

valued together at £121,400; jute, 266,900 *maunds*, valued at £80,070. The imports comprised piece-goods (£35,190), and salt (39,800 *maunds*, valued at £19,900). The single mart of Hillí, which deals almost exclusively with Chandernagar, despatched just one-third in value of the exports, including 359,600 *maunds* of rice. Next come Dhúpchánchiá, with an export of 62,300 *maunds* of rice; Mathurápura, which exported 51,000 *maunds* of jute; Díwántolá, 42,500 *maunds*; Mauarchar, 36,900 *maunds*; Gosáibárí, 28,300 *maunds*. Of the imports of piece-goods, Bográ town alone received £23,680.

The Northern Bengal State Railway, which has recently been opened, runs through Bográ District for a distance of 39 miles. Advantage was taken of the famine relief operations in 1874 to construct a system of minor roads to serve as feeders to the railway. These roads, which have an average width of 16 feet, are 15 in number, with an aggregate length of 137 miles. The total cost was about £30,000. Not a single road in the District is metalled. The chief means of communication are the natural water-courses, by which every village can be approached during the rainy season.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Bográ District amounted to £60,639, towards which the land tax contributed £43,981, or 70 per cent.; the net expenditure was £14,857, or about one-quarter of the revenue. In the same year there was one covenanted officer stationed in the District, 5 magisterial courts open, and a Bench of 8 honorary magistrates. For police purposes the District is divided into 8 *thánás* or police circles, with three outposts. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 246 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £5213. In addition, there was a municipal police of 36 men, and a rural police or village watch of 2628 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2910 officers and men, giving 1 man to every ·51 square mile of area, or to every 236 in the population. The estimated total cost was £12,316, averaging £8, 4s. 1d. per square mile, and 4¼d. per head of population. In the same year, the total number of persons in Bográ District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 344, the great majority of the convictions being for petty offences. The District contains 1 jail, at Bográ town. The total cost of the jail amounted in 1872 to £707, or £8, 4s. 7d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures for that year yielded only 8s. of net profit. The death-rate was as low as 18·5 per thousand, against 53·4 for Bengal generally.

Education has widely spread of recent years, chiefly owing to the changes by which grants in aid were assigned, first to the middle class vernacular schools, and afterwards to the village schools or *páthsálás*. In 1856, there were only 8 schools in the District, attended by 593 pupils. In 1870, the numbers had increased to

29 schools and 1221 pupils; and by 1873, the reforms of Sir George Campbell still further raised the number of schools to 113, and that of pupils to 3652, showing 1 school for every 13 square miles, and 5 pupils to every thousand of the population. In the last-mentioned year, the total expenditure on education was £1912, towards which Government contributed £987, or slightly more than one-half. The higher class English school at Bográ town has 6 masters and 117 pupils.

The subdivisional system has not been extended to Bográ District. There are 32 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with an aggregate of 656 revenue-paying estates. In 1876, there was 1 civil judge and 7 stipendiary magistrates. The two municipalities of Bográ town and Sherpur contain together a total population of 10,101. In 1874, the gross municipal income was £696, the average rate of taxation being 1s. 4d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bográ is somewhat less hot than that of the Districts farther to the west. It has been observed that the wind, when blowing from the east, is perceptibly cooled by passing over the wide stream of the Brahmaputra. The average mean temperature is 78·77° F.; the maximum on record is 98° F., in May 1873, and the minimum 38° F., in January 1864. The average annual rainfall is 73·89 inches; but in 1873, only 36·64 inches fell, a deficiency which caused the scarcity of the following year.

The prevailing diseases are fevers and bowel complaints of various kinds. Cholera is said to be endemic towards the south-west of the District, which is not far from the Chalan *bíl;* and this disease occasionally breaks out with extreme epidemic severity. Small-pox has been checked in recent years by the increasing popularity of vaccination, especially among the Muhammadans. Goitre is reported to be prevalent in the tract where jute is grown and steeped. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate, during 1875, of 26·72 per thousand in the rural area, and 52·74 in the urban area, which is conterminous with Bográ town. There were, in 1873, three charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 151 in-door and 7484 out-door patients were treated during the year.

Bográ (*Bagurá*).—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Bográ District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Karátoyá river. Lat. 24° 50′ 45″ N., long. 89° 25′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 5872, comprising 2550 Hindus, 3300 Muhammadans, and 22 Christians; number of males, 3343—females, 2529. Municipal income in 1871-72, £282; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 4⅞d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town has no interesting buildings; there are two markets, known as the Kálitalá and Málthinagar *háts*.

Bokáro.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; lies between 23° 40′ and 23° 50′ N. lat., and between 85° 30′ and 86° 10′ E. long.,

covering an area of 220 square miles; greatest length from east to west, 40 miles; maximum breadth from north to south, 6½ miles. It takes its name from the river Bokáro, which flows through the field for a distance of 27 miles. The coal series represented are the Tálcher, Dámodar, and Pánchet; the amount of available fuel has been estimated at 1500 millions of tons. Coal has of late years been regularly cut near the villages of Charhí, Phusro, Tapin-Pindra, and Bangahrá, to supply fuel for burning bricks in Hazáribágh, and some has been carted to Gayá. Bokáro stands third in order of importance among the fields of the Dámodar valley which have already been examined and reported on.

Bolán.—Pass leading over the Brahuik Mountains, from the plains of Kachhi to the highlands of Sarawán, Baluchistán. It commences in lat. 29° 30′ N., long. 67° 40′ E., about 5 miles north-west of Dádar, and rises in a succession of narrow valleys between high ranges, having a north-westerly course, until it culminates in a broad plain called the Dasht-i-Bidaulat. The total length of the pass is about 60 miles; elevation of the top, about 8500 feet; average ascent, 90 feet in the mile. From the foot of the pass the halting-places are—Khundiláni, 7 miles; Kirta, 14 miles; Bibi-Náni, 9 miles; Ab-i-Gum, 14 miles; Sír-i-Bolán, 6 miles; and from Sír-i-Bolán to the top of the pass, Dasht-i-Bidanlat, the distance is 10 miles. The Bolán river, a hill torrent rising at Sír-i-Bolán, flows through the whole length of the pass, and is frequently crossed in the first march from the foot. This torrent is, like all mountain streams, subject to sudden floods. In 1841, a British detachment was lost with its baggage in such a flood. When the river is not swollen, however, artillery can be conveyed through without any serious difficulty; and the pass is consequently of great importance from a military point of view. In 1839, a Bengal column with its artillery, consisting of 8-inch mortars, 24-pound howitzers, and 18-pounder guns, went through the Bolán in six days. At two principal points the pass is very narrow—namely, just above Khundiláni, and beyond Sír-i-Bolán; at these places it might be held by a very small force against immensely superior numbers. At the first-mentioned point, the cliffs of conglomerate on either side rise to a height of 800 feet, and when the river is in flood, the stream completely fills the narrow gorge; at the other point, the rocks are of limestone, and the passage is so narrow that only three or four men can ride abreast. The temperature in the pass during May is very high; water is abundant and good, but firewood is scarcely procurable. There is no cultivation, the route being infested by the Marsi and Kháka tribes of Baluchis, who live principally by plundering caravans proceeding from Khorasán to Sind, and deter peaceably-disposed tribes from settling in the valleys. From Bibi-Náni a mountain road leads to Khelát, *viâ* Baradi, Rodbar, Nurmah Takhi, and

Kishan; distance, 110 miles. Distance from top of pass to Quetta, 25 miles; road good.

Boláram.—Military cantonment in the Nizám's Dominions; situated in lat. 17° 32′ N., long. 78° 34′ E., on a piece of high ground 6 or 8 miles in circumference, having on its summit an open plain extending east of the cantonment. Elevation above sea, 1890 feet; distance from Haidarábád (Hyderabad), 11 miles north, and from Sikandarábád (Secunderabad), 6 miles north. The troops stationed here belong to the Haidarábád Contingent. The place is very healthy, and is resorted to as a sanitarium by the Europeans of Haidarábád and Sikandarábád. Several kinds of English vegetables and fruits thrive well. A disturbance occurred among the men of one of the Nizám's cavalry regiments stationed here in 1855, and Brigadier Colin Mackenzie was severely wounded.

Bolpur.—Village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway; distance from Calcutta (Howrah), 99 miles. Since the opening of the railway, the village has risen rapidly in importance, and is now a considerable place of trade.

Bolundra. — Petty State in the Máhi Kánta Agency, under the Bombay Government. The Thákur, Rewán Sinh, is a Rewar Rájput, descended from a younger branch of the Ranásan family. The first Thákur of Bolandra obtained the estate as a maintenance in 1724. The land under cultivation is estimated at 5200 *bíghas*. Pop. (1875), 647; revenue, £50; tribute of about £14 is paid to the Mahárájá of Edar.

Bomanahilli.—Village in Bellary District, Madras, which gives its name to a great irrigational project, designed—by the construction of a reservoir and channels, at a cost of £50,000—to irrigate 64,000 acres of land.

Bombadi.—Revenue circle and township in British Burma.—*See* BHUMAWADI.

Bombay.—The Western Presidency of British India, comprising 24 British Districts and 19 States, or aggregates of States called Agencies, under the protection of Her Majesty's Indian Government. The territory thus composed extends from 28° 47′ to 13° 53′ N. lat., and from 66° 43′ to 76° 30′ E. long. The British Districts, including Sind, contain a total area of 124,465 square miles, and a total population (according to the Census of 1872) of 16,349,206 souls; the native States cover an additional area estimated at 71,769 square miles, with a population of 8,831,730 souls: grand total area, 196,234 square miles; grand total population, 25,180,936. Since the date of the Census the State of Baroda, with an estimated area of 4399 square miles, and a population of about 2,000,000 souls, has been withdrawn from political relations with Bombay and placed in direct subordination to the Supreme Government of India; but from a geographical point of view, as

being intricately interlaced with British Districts, Baroda may still be regarded as forming part of Bombay. The Portuguese possessions of Goa, Damán, and Diu, with an aggregate area of about 1146 square miles, and an estimated population of 428,955 souls, are also included within the geographical limits of this Presidency. The capital of the Province, the residence of the Governor, and the headquarters of all the administrative departments, is BOMBAY CITY, situated on an island of the same name on the shore of the Arabian Sea, in 18° 55′ 5″ N. lat., and 72° 53′ 55″ E. long.

Boundaries.—Bombay Presidency is bounded on the north by the State of Baluchistán or Khelát, the British Province of the Punjab, and the Native States of Rájputána; on the east by the Marhattá State of Indore, the Central Provinces, West Berar, and the Dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád; on the south by the Presidency of Madras and the State of Mysore; on the west by the Arabian Sea; and on the north-west by Baluchistán.

History.—The territory included within Bombay Presidency was in old times partitioned among many independent kingdoms. The most ancient records and memorials, such as the inscribed rock of Girnár and the caves of Ajanta, carry us back to the period before and at the commencement of the Christian era, when Buddhism was prevalent as the orthodox creed throughout the peninsula of India. This early faith is now represented by the Jains, who are still an influential sect in this part of the country, adhering with tenacity to their time-worn traditions. The names of the most ancient Hindu kingdoms which can be localized in Western India are—MAHARASHTRA, the present Marhattá country, which is interpreted to mean either 'the great country' or 'the country of the aboriginal tribe of Mahárs;' Gujaráshtra, or the modern GUZERAT, 'the country of the Gújars,' including the peninsula of KATHIAWAR, which was once the headquarters of a great kingdom known as Sauráshtra, or 'the country of the Saurás;' and lastly, Sindhu or SIND, which is emphatically the land of the Indus river. A succession of dynasties of Rájput origin ruled over these regions during the first ten centuries of the Christian era. The most powerful seem to have been that which had its capital at Walabhí, in the modern Gohelwad, and the Chálukya empire of the DECCAN (Dakshin). Our knowledge of this period is chiefly derived from coins and charters on stone and copper, which have been found in great abundance in certain localities. Continuous history begins with the invasions of the Musalmáns.

Sind was the first part of India in which the Muhammadans established a footing. But the best known event in this period of history is the invasion of GUZERAT by Máhmúd of Ghazní in 1024, when the sacred temple of Somnáth was sacked and an immense booty carried away by

the invader. Henceforth the Rájput dynasty of Guzerat, whose capital was at Anhalwádá or Pátan, defended themselves with varying success against successive waves of invasion, until their kingdom was finally destroyed in 1297 by Alaf Khán, the general of the Turki Emperor of Delhi, Alá-úd-dín Khiljí. For about a century, from 1297 to 1403, Guzerat was governed by deputies sent from Delhi; but the last of these governors, Jafar Khán, a Rájput renegade, openly threw off his allegiance to the emperor, and founded an independent dynasty known as the Ahmedábád kingdom, from the capital built in 1413 by Ahmad I. This dynasty attained to great power and splendour, as is testified both by the reports of European travellers and the ruined buildings still existing at Ahmedábád and Chámpáner. The annual revenue is said to have amounted to 11 millions sterling. In 1573, Guzerat was conquered by the Mughal Emperor Akbar, who led the invading army in person, and the Province was again subjected to the control of viceroys from Delhi. During the 17th century, Muhammadan authority was maintained despite the rising power of the Marhattás on the south of the Province; but, on the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, all show of order was swept away, and in 1757 the Province of Guzerat, with its capital, Ahmedábád, was finally surrendered to the Marhattás, under the joint leadership of a deputy of the Peshwá and Dámaji Gáekwár.

The Deccan (Dakshin) was first conquered by the Muhammadans in 1294-95, though the difficult nature of the hill tracts, and dissension among the invaders, long prevented the subjugation from being complete. In 1345, the weakness of Muhammad Tughlak, the Turki Emperor of Delhi, encouraged Ahmad Sháh Báhmani to rise in rebellion and found an independent dynasty called after his own name, whose earliest capital was at Gulbarga, subsequently removed to Bídar. About 1490 the Báhmani kingdom fell to pieces, being partitioned among the feudatory nobles, of whom the two greatest founded the dynasties of Bijápur and Ahmednagar. Towards the close of the 16th century, the Mughal emperors of Delhi began to press upon these independent kingdoms from the north, and the Marhattá horsemen, under Sivají, found their opportunity in the continual dissensions of the Musalmáns. In 1637, the Nizám Sháhí dynasty of Ahmednagar was finally overthrown, and its territory divided between the Mughals and the Bijápur kings. In 1684, Bijápur was itself taken by the Emperor Aurangzeb, and the Mughals and the Marhattás were left face to face. The great Sivají was born in 1627. He rose to power by developing the natural talent of his countrymen for rapine and treachery, and by alternately playing off the Musalmáns of Bijápur and Delhi against each other. In 1674, he ventured to declare his independence openly by being crowned at Ráigarh, and six years afterwards he died. His lineal successors, the Rájás of Satara, did not inherit his genius for command; but the Marhattá

traditions were maintained by subordinate officials and generals, who carved out for themselves kingdoms in all parts of the peninsula, and only lost the supreme empire of India by their defeat at the hands of the Afghâns at Pánipat. The most important members of the Marhattá confederacy who played a part in the history of Bombay were —the Peshwá, or over-lord, the hereditary mayor of the palace to the effete descendants of Sivají, who may be said to have established his sovereignty in 1749, with Poona for his capital; and the Gáekwár of Baroda. These two chiefs collected tribute during the 18th century from the greater part of what is now the Presidency of Bombay.

The first European nation to have dealings with the west coast of India was the Portuguese. In 1498, Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut; five years later, the great Albuquerque conquered Goa; and as early as 1532, the Portuguese are found in occupation of the island of Bombay. For a hundred years they maintained their monopoly of the Eastern trade. The first English ship is said to have arrived at Surat, then the chief emporium of Indian commerce, in 1608. Shortly afterwards the English merchants fought a sea-battle with the Portuguese near Surat, and, as the result of their victory, obtained a charter from the Delhi Emperor Jahángír in 1613, entitling them to establish a factory in that city. The Dutch received a similar authorization in 1618. Bombay island, comprising the present BOMBAY CITY, was ceded to the English Crown in 1661 as part of the dower of the Infanta Catharina on her marriage with Charles II. A British fleet was sent out under the Earl of Marlborough to take possession of the island; but a dispute arose with the Portuguese governor, and in 1668 the king was glad to hand over his unprofitable acquisition, at that time considered as the grave of Europeans, to the newly formed East India Company, on payment of the annual rent of £10 in gold. The total revenue was estimated at 75,000 *xeraphins*, or about £6500, paid by a population of 10,000 souls. The Company forthwith adopted measures to strengthen the fortifications, attract European settlers, and encourage manufacture and commerce. In 1686, the chief control of all the Company's possessions in India was transferred from Surat to Bombay, which was erected into an independent Presidency in 1708, on the amalgamation of the two rival English Companies trading with India; and finally, in 1773, Bombay was placed in a position of qualified dependence upon the Governor of Bengal at Calcutta, whose place is now filled by the Viceroy.

For more than a century the position of the English at Bombay was merely that of traders, who had successfully infringed the monopoly of the Portuguese and the Dutch, but were hemmed in on the landward side by the rising power of the Marhattás. The first of the Marhattá chiefs with whom they came in collision was Angriá, who, from his stronghold on the island of Kolába, dominated the entire coast of the

Konkan with a numerous piratical fleet. In 1756, the Governor of Bombay, in alliance with the Peshwá, despatched an expedition by sea, which captured Angriá's fortified harbour of Savandrug; and in the same year an expedition sent from England, under the joint command of Admiral Watson and the celebrated Clive, stormed Gheriá or Vizia-drug, and won a booty of £100,000. The power of the Marhattá pirates was thus broken, but the only territorial acquisition made by the English was a few villages on the mainland south of Bombay. In 1774, the Bombay Government commenced the first Marhattá war, on the occasion of a disputed succession to the title of Peshwá. This war was marked by the inglorious convention of Wargáum, and the repulse of General Goddard at the foot of the Bor-Ghát. It was terminated by the treaty of Sálbai; in accordance with which the English retained permanent possession of Salsette, Elephanta, Karanja and Hog Island, but gave back Bassein and all their conquests in Guzerat to the Peshwá, and made over Broach to Sindhia. The castle of Surat had been in British hands since 1759; and in 1800 the entire administration of that city was transferred to them by the Muhammadan Nawáb, whose descendants retained the empty title until 1842. The second Marhattá war was occasioned by the treaty of Bassein in 1802, by which the Peshwá accepted the subsidiary system that formed the keynote to the Marquis of Wellesley's policy. As the result of that war, a considerable tract in Guzerat, including the present Districts of Surat, Broach, and Káira, was ceded to the British, and their political influence became predominant at the courts of Poona and Baroda. During the interval of peace that followed, measures were taken for destroying the haunts of the pirates who then infested the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch (Kachchh). In 1807, the States of Káthiáwár were taken under British protection, and in 1809 the Ráo of Cutch was induced to sign a treaty promising to co-operate in the suppression of piracy. But no sooner had the Peshwá, Bájí Ráo, been restored to his throne at Poona by a British army, than he began to plot for the expulsion of the British from the Deccan. At last, in 1817, he suddenly attacked the Resident, Mr. Elphinstone, who retired to Kirki, where a small British force was stationed, which a few days afterwards utterly defeated the whole army of the Peshwá. After a few more engagements, the fugitive Peshwá surrendered to Sir John Malcolm. A pension of £80,000 was guaranteed to him for life, but he was deprived of all his dominions. By this step the Bombay Presidency was augmented by the annexation of the Districts of Poona, Ahmednagar, Násik, Sholápur, Belgaum, Kaládgi, Dhárwár, Ahmedábád, and the Konkan; thus receiving at one time the greater part of its present territory. At the same date, Holkár made over his rights in Khandesh District to the British. Satára lapsed to the paramount power in 1848,

on the death of the last lineal descendant of Sivají without heirs; the non-regulation tracts of the Pánch Maháls were ceded by Sindhia in 1860; and in 1861 the southern limits of the Presidency were extended by the transfer of the District of North Kanara from Madras.

The history of Sind forms a chapter apart from that of the rest of the Presidency. Shortly after the beginning of the present century, the Government of that country was assumed by four brothers of Baluchí origin, known as the Tálpur Amírs. The advance of the British power, and especially the right of passage up the Indus at the time of the Afghán war, caused complications with the Amírs of Sind. Hostilities were precipitated by an attack upon the British Residency at Haidarábád, and the war that followed was signalized by the decisive victory of Miání (Meeanee). The Province was annexed to the British Empire in 1843, and the conquering general, Sir Charles Napier, was appointed the first Commissioner. Sind continues to be administered as a non-regulation Province; and at the present time a proposal is under consideration to detach it from Bombay, and place it, together with the frontier Districts of the Punjab, immediately under the Supreme Government of India.

The recent history of Bombay is destitute of any stirring incidents. Peace has remained unbroken, even during the troublous season of 1857, when the border line between mutiny and discipline was marked by the limits where the Bengal and Bombay armies touched. The local army has done good service in many climes. In Afghánistán and Persia, in Burma and China, in Aden and Abyssinia, the Sepoys of Bombay have shown themselves willing to do their duty wheresoever called. But the chief glory of British administration has lain in the development of the arts of peace. Instead of the chronic disorder of the Marhattá period, absolute security is now guaranteed to life and property. Where bands of irregular horsemen formerly collected a scanty tribute from the villagers at the spear's point, the land revenue is now realized by peaceful operation of law in amounts larger than could be conceived in the wildest dreams of extortion. The railway, a triumph of engineering skill, climbs with ease the famous Bor-Ghát, which in old times shut off the fertile plateau of the Deccan from the sea-coast, and once witnessed the discomfiture of a British army. A series of administrative reforms, originated by Mountstuart Elphinstone, Governor of Bombay from 1819 to 1827, have been continued and developed by the subsequent succession of rulers; and the benefits of civilisation have been widely distributed through the land. The cultivator is no longer a tenant-at-will of the State, liable to unlimited exactions of revenue; his position is now that of a part owner of the soil, with rights which he can transmit by sale or descent, subject only to the payment of a rent-charge fixed for a term of years.

At the same time, the ambition of the upper classes has been turned into the peaceful channels of commerce. The growth of the trade in cotton is at once the cause and the measure of the advance in the average standard of comfort. Whole Districts in Guzerat and the Deccan have found their advantage in cultivating a staple which for a short season brought them a golden return, and still pays better than the ordinary grain crops. Bombay city herself, the most populous and the most wealthy in all India, shows by her palaces, her docks, and her public works, the general prosperity of the land over which she rules, and from which she draws a rich tribute.

Physical Aspects.—The Presidency of Bombay presents on the map the appearance of an irregular strip of land, stretching along the eastern shore of the Arabian Sea, and extending up the lower portion of the Indus valley. The continuous coast line is only broken towards the north by the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch, between which lies the projecting peninsula of Káthiáwár. The seaboard is generally rock-bound and difficult of access, though it contains many estuaries forming fair-weather ports for vessels engaged in the coasting trade. Bombay and Karwar alone have harbours sufficiently landlocked to protect shipping during the prevalence of the south-west monsoon.

Physically as well as historically, Bombay may be roughly divided into two distinct portions, the Narbadá (Nerbudda) forming the boundary line. To the north of that river, lie Guzerat, Káthiáwár, Cutch, and Sind; to the south the Marhattá country, including portions of the Deccan and the Karnatic, and the Konkan. The former of these tracts is for the most part a low plain of alluvial origin. In Southern Guzerat the valleys of the Táptí and Narbadá form sheets of unbroken cultivation. But in Northern Guzerat the soil becomes sandy and the rainfall deficient; cultivation is largely dependent either upon artificial irrigation or the natural humidity caused by the neighbourhood of the ocean. In Sind the surface is a wide expanse of desert sand, interrupted only by low cliffs or undulating sand-heaps. The geological formation is distinct from that of the rest of the Indian peninsula, consisting of limestone rocks, continuous with those found in Persia and Arabia. The latter of the two tracts is an upland country furrowed with high mountains and deep valleys, which intercept the rain-clouds of the monsoons, and blossom with tropical verdure. The geological formation is composed of nearly horizontal strata of basalt and similar rocks, which naturally break into steep terraces and hog-backed ridges, and have produced by their decomposition the famous 'black cotton soil,' unsurpassed for its fertility. Perched upon these rugged eminences stand the impregnable hill forts famous in Marhattá history. Within this second tract, the Deccan, the Karnatic, and the Konkan are each marked by special features of their own. The Deccan, including Khandesh District, is an

elevated plateau behind the Western Gháts. It is drained by several large rivers, along whose banks are fields of much fertility; but for the rest, the air is dry and the rainfall uncertain. The Karnatic, or country south of the Kistna river, is a plain of lower elevation, and contains wide expanses of black soil under continuous cultivation. The Konkan is the name for the narrow strip of land lying between the base of the Gháts and the sea. As a whole, it is a rugged and difficult country, intersected by numerous creeks, and abounding in isolated peaks and detached ranges of hills. The cultivation consists only of a few rich plots of rice-land and gardens of cocoa-nut. The rainfall is excessive.

Mountains.—The following are the chief mountain ranges, which all have a general direction from north to south. In the north-west, on the right bank of the Indus, the Hála Mountains, a continuation of the great Sulemán range, separate British India from the domains of the Khán of Khelát. In Sind there are low ranges of sand-hills, and in Cutch and Káthiáwár several isolated peaks and cliffs, which form geologically a continuation of the Aravalli Mountains. Proceeding towards the south-east, an extensive mountain chain is met with, which may be regarded either as a southern spur of the Aravalli Mountains or a northern prolongation of the Western Gháts beyond the valleys of the Táptí and Narbadá. These hills separate Guzerat from the States of Central India, beginning in the neighbourhood of Mount Abu and stretching southwards down to the right bank of the Narbadá. South of the Táptí the country becomes rugged and broken, with isolated masses of rock and projecting spurs, forming the watershed for the great rivers of the Deccan. This rugged region constitutes, strictly speaking, the northern extremity of the Western Gháts, here called the Sahyádri Hills. That great range runs southward parallel to the sea-coast for upwards of 500 miles, with a general elevation of about 1800 feet above the sea, though individual peaks rise to more than double that height. The western declivity is abrupt, and the low strip of land bordering the sea-shore is seldom more than 40 miles in width. The *gháts* do not descend in one sheer precipice, but, as is usually the case with a trap formation, the descent is broken by a succession of terraces. The landward slope is gentle, also falling in terraces, the crest of the range being in many cases but slightly raised above the level of the central plateau of the Deccan. Apart from many minor spurs of the Western Gháts, only two ranges in the Presidency have a direction from east to west. The Sátpura range, from the neighbourhood of the fort of Asirgarh to its termination in the east of Guzerat, forms the watershed between the Táptí and Narbadá rivers, separating Khandesh District from the territories of Indore. The Sátmala or Ajanta Hills, which divide Khandesh on the south from the Nizám's Dominions, are of less importance, being

rather the northern slope of the plateau of the Deccan than a distinct hill range.

Rivers.—Bombay Presidency has no great rivers which it can call its own. The outlying Province of Sind is penetrated throughout its entire length from north to south by the INDUS, whose overflowing waters are the sole means of distributing fertility through that parched region. Its season of flood begins in March and continues until September, during which time the discharge of water, calculated at 40,857 cubic feet in December, is said to increase tenfold. The entire lower portion of the delta is torn and furrowed by old channels of the river, for the surface is a light sand, easily swept away and redeposited year by year. A full account of the utility of the Indus, both for irrigation and navigation, will be found in the separate article on that river. The plains of Northern Guzerat are watered by a few small streams, the chief of which are the Subarmati and Máhi, both rising in the Máhi Kánta Hills and flowing southward into the head of the Gulf of Cambay. The Narbadá in its westerly course to the sea from Central India has but a short section within the limits of the Presidency. It separates the territory of Baroda from the Rewá Kánta Agency, and, after passing the city of Broach, falls into the Gulf of Cambay by a noble estuary. For about 100 miles from the sea it is navigable at all seasons by country boats, and during the rains by vessels of 50 tons burden. The Tápti, though a smaller river, has a greater commercial importance. It flows through the whole length of Khandesh District, and enters the sea a little above the city of Surat. Both these rivers run for the most part between high banks, and are little used for purposes of irrigation. Passing southwards, the hill streams which rise in the Western Gháts and flow west into the Arabian Sea are very numerous, but of little importance. During the rains they become formidable torrents, but in the hot season they dwindle away and almost cease to flow. In the low lands of the Konkan their annual floods have worn deep creeks, which in such a broken country form valuable highways for traffic. In the extreme south of the Presidency, in the District of North Kanara, these westward-flowing streams become larger; one of them, the Sherávati, plunges downwards from the mountains in the celebrated Falls of Gersoppa—a succession of cascades, of which the principal is 890 feet in height. On the eastern side of the Gháts are the headwaters of both the Godávari and Kistna (Krishna) rivers, the former of which rises near Násik and the latter near Mahabaleshwar. Both of these, after collecting the waters of many tributary streams, some of considerable size, leave the Presidency in a south-easterly direction, crossing the entire plain of the Deccan on their way to the Bay of Bengal.

Bays and Lakes.—The most peculiar natural feature in the Presidency is the Ran or Gulf of Cutch (Kachchh). Authorities have not yet decided

whether it is an arm of the sea from which the waters have receded, or an inland lake whose seaward barrier has been swept away by some natural convulsion. It covers an estimated area of 8000 square miles, forming the western boundary of the Province of Guzerat; but when flooded during the rainy season, it unites the two gulfs of Cutch and Cambay, and converts the peninsula of Cutch into an island. In the dry season the soil is impregnated with salt, the surface in some places being moist and marshy, and in others strewed with gravel and shingle like a dry river-bed or sea-beach. At this time the Ran is frequented by numerous herds of antelope, the 'black buck' of sportsmen. Considerable tracts of marshy land are to be found in the Province of Sind, caused by changes in the course of the Indus. The Manchhar lake, on the right bank of the river, near the town of Sehwan, is swelled during the annual season of inundation to an area of about 160 square miles; and a large portion of the newly-formed delta has not yet been fully reclaimed from the antagonistic forces of the river and the sea. Along the coast of the Konkan the low-lying lands on the borders of the salt-water creeks are liable to be overflowed at high tide. Two artificial sheets of water for their size may be dignified with the title of lakes. Vehar tank, constructed to provide Bombay city with water, is situated about 16 miles distant from the city, amid a group of hills near the town of Tanna; it has an area of about 1400 acres. Karakwásla tank, intended to supply Poona, and also to irrigate the neighbouring fields, covers an area of 3500 acres.

Minerals.—The country is deficient in mineral wealth, though abundantly supplied with stone adapted for building and roadmaking. At Teagár, in the District of Dhárwár, iron ore is mined and smelted, but the scarcity of fuel prevents operations on an extensive scale. In the same District, large slate quarries are worked. There are five valuable limestone quarries near Karáchi (Kurrachee), and lime is burned in Belgaum District. The bordering mountains of Baluchistán are reported to contain large quantities of gypsum, copper, lead, antimony, and sulphur.

The Forests of Bombay belong to two separate classes—the produce of the alluvial plains in Sind, and the produce of the mountains of the Western Gháts. The State reserves in Sind are estimated to cover an area of 352,041 acres, lying along the banks of the Indus. They are divided into blocks, locally known as *belás*, which are said to have been originally formed as hunting grounds by the Amírs, the former Muhammadan rulers of the Province. Frequent changes in the course of the river sweep away large portions of these *belás*, the average annual loss from erosion being calculated at as much as 10,000 acres; and, though fresh deposits of alluvion afford some compensation, it takes many years to replace the timber-trees thus carried off. The most valuable trees are

sisu or blackwood (Dalbergia sisoo); *bábul* (Acacia Arabica), which here attains a large size; *bhán* (Populus Euphratica), a soft wood which grows in great abundance in Upper Sind; and tamarisk (Tamarix Indica), which never attains large dimensions, but is extensively used as fuel by the river steamers. The bamboo is altogether unknown in Sind, but the true date (Phœnix dactylifera) grows abundantly near Sukkur, in the upper part of the Province. In 1875-76, the total receipts of the Forest Department in Sind amounted to £28,236, against an expenditure of £19,042, showing a net profit of £9194. The work of conservancy is chiefly confined to the prevention of mischief by fire, and the planting of *bábul* trees. The hill forests are practically limited to the range of the Western Gháts. In Guzerat and the Karnatic, cultivation is too widely spread; and in the Deccan and Khandesh District the atmosphere is too dry, and the rainfall too uncertain. In the northern extremity of the Gháts occurs the tract known as the Dangs,—low, damp, and enclosed by hills,—which yields little besides its timber; and in the extreme south the District of North Kanara forms in its uplands one vast forest, from which one-half of the total forest revenue in the Presidency is derived. The woods of the Northern Konkan possess an especial value from their nearness to Bombay city. The following are the principal timber-trees in the hills:—Teak, blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), *tiwás* (Dalbergia Ujainensis), *honé* or *bibla* (Pterocarpus Marsupium), *ain* or *sádara* (Terminalia glabra), ebony and *pún*, *bábúl* (Acacia Arabica), *khayer* (Acacia catechu), *heda* (Nauclea cordifolia), *kalam* or *yetgal* (Nauclea parvifolia), *nána* and *bonda* (two species of Lagerstrœmia), *asána* (Bidelia spinosa), ironwood or *jamba* (Juga zylocarpa). Sandal-wood is only found in the forests of Kanara. In 1875-76, the total revenue of the Forest Department in the Regulation Districts of Bombay was £96,609; the total expenditure was £59,319, leaving a profit of £37,290. The sowing of teak and *bábul* plantations is conducted on an extensive scale.

Besides timber-trees, the forests of Bombay yield other wild produce of commercial value. The fruit-trees include mango (Mangifera Indica), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), *bher* (Zizyphus jujuba), and *bél* (Ægle marmelos), the fruit of which is a specific in dysentery. *Khayer* (Acacia catechu), besides supplying timber and firewood, is also the source of cutch or Terra japonica; Terminalia chebula yields the myrobolans of commerce. *Undi* (Callophyllum inophyllum), *karanja* (Pongamia glabra), and *mahuá* (Bassia latifolia), all supply oil for industrial purposes; and the last of these three bears flowers from which a spirit is distilled. The palms comprise the cocoa-nut (Cocos nucifera), the bastard date (Phoenix sylvestris), the Palmyra palm (Borassus flabelliformis), *bhérali-már* (Caryota urens), and the betel-nut or *supárí* (Areca catechu). The jungle tribes collect gum for several varieties of

trees, and in Sindh the Government derives a small revenue from the lac found on the *bábul.*

Fauna.—Among the wild animals peculiar to the Presidency may be mentioned the maneless lion of Guzerat, which zoologists are now disposed to regard as a local variety rather than a separate species; and the wild ass, frequenting the sandy deserts of Cutch and Upper Sind. Leopards are common, but the tiger has retreated before the advance of cultivation, and is now only found in remote jungles. The black bear (Ursus labiatus) is found wherever rocky hills and forests occur; and the bison (Gavæus gaurus), the most formidable of all Indian large game, haunts the mountain glades of Kanara. Of deer, the *sámbhar* (Rusa Aristotelis) is found in the same localities as the bison, though in greater abundance; while the *nilgái* (Portax pictus) and the antelope are so numerous, especially in Guzerat, as to become a regular pest to the cultivators. Small game, such as snipe, quail, partridges, and wild duck, can generally be obtained by the sportsman in all parts of the Presidency, even within easy reach of the suburbs of Bombay. In the year 1876, the total number of deaths throughout the Presidency returned as caused by wild beasts was only 83, of which 32 are assigned to tigers; whereas venomous snakes killed 989 persons. In the same year wild beasts and snakes are said to have destroyed 4795 cattle. The total amount paid in rewards for the extermination of destructive animals was £80. All these figures are much below the average of the other Provinces of India.

Concerning domestic animals, it may be said that the cattle of Bombay are everywhere too numerous for the pasturage available. In breeding, no attention is paid to artificial selection, and the present poor condition of the animals is said to be becoming worse. In Guzerat a class of bullocks of more than ordinary size is met with, used especially for drawing carts along the deep sandy roads of that country. Into the south of the Presidency a yet more valuable breed of draught oxen is imported from Mysore. In certain parts buffaloes are commonly used for ploughing; and throughout Sind the camel is the one animal for all agricultural purposes. In former days the horses of Káthiáwár and the Deccan were highly valued for military objects, but both breeds have now much deteriorated. Horse shows are encouraged by the Government, and stallions are kept at the public expense, numbering 73 in 1876, of which 60 were Arabs and 10 imported from England. In the same year the agricultural returns for the entire Presidency showed a total of 3,313,326 bullocks and 2,304,400 cows; 495,879 male and 1,056,126 female buffaloes; 55,802 horses, 59,392 mares, and 29,481 foals; 78,183 asses; and 3,221,051 sheep and goats. A considerable proportion of the asses, and, in addition, 41,000 camels, are found in the two Districts of Sind that furnished returns.

POPULATION, ETC. OF THE BRITISH DISTRICTS IN BOMBAY PRESIDENCY (1872).

	Sq. Miles.	Villages.	Houses.	Population.	Population per Sq. Mile.
DECCAN.					
Khandesh,	10,162	3,447	229,899	1,028,642	101·22
Násik,	8,140	1,698	133,848	734,386	90·22
Ahmednagar,	6,647	1,375	141,652	773,938	116·43
Poona,	5,099	1,197	142,687	907,235	177·92
Satára,	5,378	1,428	172,513	1,116,050	207·52
Sholápur,	3,925	649	109,826	662,986	168·91
Belgaum,	4,592	1,134	188,177	938,750	204·44
Dhárwár,	4,565	1,439	205,072	988,037	216·44
Kaládgi,	5,696	1,205	143,704	816,037	143·27
Total,	54,204	13,572	1,467,378	7,966,061	146·97
KONKAN.					
Kanara,	4,235	1,065	91,593	398,406	94·07
Ratnágiri,	3,789	1,290	224,790	1,019,136	268·97
Kolába,	1,482	1,065	72,699	350,405	236·44
Bombay City,[1]	22	...	31,447	644,405	28,988·08
Tanna,	4,052	2,264	148,161	847,424	209·14
Total,	13,580	5,685	568,690	3,259,776	240·09
GUZERAT.					
Surat,	1,588	859	137,613	607,087	382·30
Broach,	1,358	415	96,723	350,322	257·92
Káira,	1,561	591	218,596	782,733	501·43
Pánch Mahals,	1,731	693	56,922	240,743	139·80
Ahmedábád,	3,844	904	260,970	829,637	215·82
Total,	10,082	3,462	770,824	2,810,522	278·77
SIND.					
Karáchí (Kurrachee),	14,091	710	97,824	423,495	30·50
Haidarábád,	9,053	3,854	147,078	721,947	79·75
Thar and Párkar,	12,729	51	39,692	180,761	14·20
Shikárpur,	8,813	959	144,085	776,227	88·80
Upper Sind Frontier,	1,913	76	18,969	89,985	47·40
Total,	46,599	5,650	447,648	2,192,415	47·50
Cantonments and Railways,	...	...	...	120,432	...
Grand Total,	124,465	28,369	3,254,540	16,349,206	130·40

[1] The area of Bombay city and island is given in the Census Report as 18·64 square miles; the area has now been ascertained by survey to be 22·23 square miles.

Population.—Careful estimates, published in 1854, give the following figures for the area and population of the Bombay Presidency. Total area of the British Districts, including Sind, 120,065 square miles; total population, 11,109,067, or an average of 92·55 per square mile. Total area of Native States, 60,650 square miles; total population, 4,469,925. Grand total, 180,715 square miles and 15,578,992 inhabitants. The Census of 1872, conducted throughout the British Districts on the night of 21st February, and extended to all the Native States with the exception of Khairpur in Sind, disclosed a population of 25,180,936 souls. The organization of the work, with the general superintendence of details, was entrusted to the Sanitary Commissioner. The District operations were conducted under the orders of the several Collectors. The actual enumeration was effected by the subordinate Government agency in each village, supplemented where necessary by paid labour. The total cost of the Census was £16,821, or an average of a farthing per head of the population enumerated, *i.e.* within British Districts.

The table on the preceding page shows the area, population, number of villages and houses, and the average density of population in each British District.

The following table gives the statistics available for the area and population of the Native States, or aggregates of States under single Agencies, in political connection with the Bombay Government, according to the Census of 1872:—

AREA AND POPULATION OF NATIVE STATES IN THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY (1872).

	Sq. miles.	Population.
Baroda,[1]	4,399	2,000,225
Kolhápur,	3,184	802,691
Cutch (Kachchh), (exclusive of the Ran),	6,500	487,305
Máhi Kánta Agency,	4,000	447,056
Khairpur (in Sind),	6,109	127,000
Káthiáwár Agency (187),	20,338	2,312,629
Pálanpur,	8,000	502,586
Rewá Kantá,	4,793	505,732
Cambay,	350	83,494
Sáwant Wári,	900	190,814
Janjira,	325	71,996
Southern Marhattá Jágírs (8),	2,734	610,434
Satára Jágírs,	3,508	417,295
Jawár,	535	37,406
Surat Agency,	1,082	124,808
Sawanúr,	70	17,288
Nárukot,	143	6,837
Peint,	960	47,033
Khandesh Petty States (23),	3,840	39,111
Total,	71,769	8,831,730

[1] In 1875, the political control of the State of Baroda was transferred from Bombay to the Supreme Government of India

According to these tables, the total area under the administration of the Governor of Bombay, excluding Baroda, is 191,835 square miles, and the population is 23,180,721 souls. The elaborate forms of the Census enumeration were only used in the territory directly under British administration, and therefore the following statistical details are confined to that area. The average density of population throughout the Presidency is 130·80 per square mile, but the pressure varies greatly in different tracts. The two most densely peopled Districts are Káira, with 501·43 persons to the square mile, and Surat, with 382·30. The two least populous in Bombay Proper are Násik, with 90·22, and North Kanara, with 94·07. The average in the outlying Province of Sind is only 47·50 per square mile, falling as low as 14·20 in the sandy desert of Thar and Párkar. Classified according to sex, the population is made up of 8,547,100 males and 7,805,523 females; proportion of males, 52·27 per cent. This proportion of males is maintained fairly uniformly throughout, except in Sind, where it rises to 55·48 per cent. The low proportion of 48·19 per cent. of males in Ratnágiri District, as compared with the high rate of 62·03 per cent. in Bombay city, is to be explained by the natural influx of male labourers from the neighbouring country to find work in the city. Classified according to age, there are, under twelve years of age, 3,129,892 boys and 2,798,292 girls; total children, 5,928,184, or 31·65 per cent. of the entire population. The proportion of girls to total females is nearly equal to that of boys to total males. The number of persons afflicted with certain specified infirmities is thus returned:—Insane—males 4090, and females 1772; total, 5862: idiots—males 4727, and females 1903; total, 6630: deaf and dumb—males 10,235, and females 5322; total, 15,557: blind—males 18,629, females 15,724; total, 34,353: lepers—males 10,055, females 3845; total, 13,900: grand total of infirms, 75,944, or 1 in every 215 of the population. The large preponderance of males in all these classes except among the blind is noteworthy. The classification of the people according to occupation shows—184,332 persons in Government employ, or 1·14 per cent.; 4,019,906 engaged in agriculture and with animals, or 24·77 per cent.; 420,546 in trade and commerce, or 2·59 per cent.; and 2,191,443 in manufactures and arts, or 13·50 per cent. An attempt was made in the Census papers to classify the population according to their educational acquirements, but the results obtained cannot be said to have much value. The returns give a total of 853,711 persons as able to read and write, or under instruction; being 1 in every 19 of the population.

Ethnology.—The classification according to caste and nationality adopted in the Census Report does not throw much light upon the ethnical characteristics of the population of Bombay Presidency; but it

has been supplemented by two valuable papers drawn up by the late Rev. John Wilson. The Census tables show 16,168,588 Asiatics; 15,031 non-Asiatics; and 45,155 mixed races. The non-Asiatics and mixed races are altogether unimportant in their total number, and will be again referred to in the section dealing with religion. The Asiatics are subdivided into those from beyond the frontier of India, who number 163,972, almost entirely Baluchís, Mekránis, and Arabs, in the Province of Sind; and natives of British India, who are further subdivided into 709,025 aborigines, 12,606,004 Hindus, 2,504,338 Musalmáns, and 185,249 'others.' The total number of Hindus, again, is made up of 654,707 Bráhmans, 142,183 Kshattriyas, 932,404 Vaisyas, 10,801,393 Súdras (thus far following Manu's fourfold caste system), and 75,367 not recognising caste. A more intelligible principle of ethnical classification would arrange the people according to their languages. We should thus have three large divisions—the Maráthí, the Gujaráthí, and the Sindhí—with the minor subdivisions formed by the Kanarese and Konkani dialects. All the Hindus and the great majority of the Muhammadans would fall under one or other of these classes; while the comparatively scanty number of aborigines, who have nowhere in Bombay preserved their own language, must rank by themselves. Of the above-mentioned tongues, all except the Kanarese are derivatives from the Sanskrit, closely allied to each other, though distinguishable by broad points of difference. The Kanarese is a member of the Dravidian family, which is dominant throughout Southern India. It is perhaps necessary to point out, that the common derivation of these languages from the Sanskrit by no means involves as a corollary that the peoples who use them are equally descended from the august Aryan stock. No decisive inference can be drawn from language to race. For example, the hill tribes of Bhíls, who are manifestly the aborigines of this part of India, have lost all memory of any tongue of their own, and now use whatever dialect is spoken by their more immediate neighbours. The classification, however, into Maráthí, Gujaráthí, and Sindhí, accurately enough represents the three principal nationalities of Western India, as determined by ethnical characteristics and a common history. The Marhattás have a distinct national individuality. They are an active, energetic race, liable to religious enthusiasm, and full of military ardour. In their native mountains of the Deccan, they never submitted to the Muhammadan yoke; and under the leadership of Sivají, they not only asserted their independence, but laid the greater part of India under tribute. In the season of their prosperity their vices were rather those of treachery and violence than of debauchery. In physical appearance they are of middle height, and somewhat of a copper colour, varying in shade in different Districts. The chief tribe is the agricultural Kunbís, a name

identical with the Kurmís of Hindustán. Sivaji himself belonged to this caste; and though they are regarded by the Bráhmans as mere Súdras, they claim themselves to rank with Kshattriyas or Rájputs. Altogether the Marhattás acknowledge upwards of 200 castes, including 34 septs of Bráhmans. A comparatively high status is awarded to those castes who work in metal. The inhabitants of Guzerat include a somewhat larger Muhammadan element, though the Hindus among them are characterised by a strong religious feeling, which has taken shape in the popular development of the Vallabhácharjya sect of Vishnuvites. The three superior castes of Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Vaisyas are numerously represented. The Bráhmans are subdivided into no less than 160 different septs. The Rájput clans are specially numerous in Káthiáwár, where they have given names to the local divisions of the country, and continue to be the ruling caste. The Vaisyas, whether Hindus or Jains, under the common denomination of Banias, have attained a high degree of prosperity as shopkeepers, money-lenders, and wholesale merchants. Their trading operations extend to the coasts of Arabia and Africa. The chief tribes forming the mass of the Guzerat population are the Kulambís and Ahírs; while the aboriginal race of Kulís is rapidly rising in the scale of civilisation. The people of Sind are almost all Muhammadans by religion, for their country was the earliest field of Musalmán conquest in India; but their preservation of a dialect derived from the Sanskrit, though with a large infusion of Arabic and Persian words, indicates that they are descended from the early Hindu inhabitants of the Province, who are said to have been converted in a body during the reign of the Bene-Umayyih Khalífs. The Muhammadans of foreign origin include Sayyids, Afgháns, Baluchís, Memons, and Khojahs. The Bráhmans of Sind are connected with their caste-fellows of the Punjab. Among the trading castes the Lohánis deserve mention, as conducting the greater part of the trade that passes through Khelát and Afghánistán. In Kanara and the adjoining tracts the population shares in the general characteristics of the Karnatic. The Bráhmans form a more homogeneous body than in the rest of the Presidency, but their general influence is perhaps less, owing to the degree to which sect is substituted for caste among all Dravidians. The Lingáyats, or worshippers of Siva under the form of the *linga*, are an especially influential body, though of comparatively late origin.

Religions.—The religious classification in the Census Report, of the $16\frac{1}{3}$ millions within the British Districts, shows the following results:—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 12,917,793, or 79·60 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 2,843,954, or 17·32 per cent.; Buddhists or Jains, 190,620, or 1·17 per cent.; Christians, 106,071, or ·65 per cent.; 'others,' including Pársís,

Síkhs, Jews, etc., 170,336, or 1·04 per cent. The proportion of Hindus is highest in the Deccan. Of the total number of Hindus, 3,465,349 are classed as Sivaites or worshippers of Siva, 1,419,233 as Vaishnavs, and 48,536 as ascetics or religious mendicants; the remainder are unclassified. Of the total number of Muhammadans, as many as 1,712,266 are found in Sind, where they form 78·10 of the population; only 97,386, or 3·42 per cent., are returned as Shiás, the rest belonging to the Sunni sect. The Muhammadans are again divided into the seven following sects or nationalities:—Sayyids, 179,892; Shaikhs, 524,789; Patháns, 81,457; Mughals, 12,113; Memons, 48,538; Borahs, 85,276; Khojahs, 17,801: leaving 1,554,472 unspecified. The Khojah, Borah, and Memon sects are famous for their trading operations. The Khojahs are converts from Hinduism, and acknowledge as their spiritual head the Imám of the Ismáilí sect, who are supposed to represent the Assassins (Hashisheir) of the Crusaders. They are especially numerous in the Peninsula of Káthiáwár. They have also established trading colonies along the east coast of Africa. The Christians are made up of 12,784 Protestants, among whom the Census Report includes 136 Armenians and 89 Greeks; 75,000 Roman Catholics; and 18,287 native converts, not further distinguished. The great majority of the Christians are found in Bombay city and Tanna District, where the Indo-Portuguese element is strongly represented. Among 'others' the Pársís number 66,498, of whom two-thirds are found in Bombay city, and a large portion of the remainder in Surat District. The Síkhs number 23,993, chiefly in Sind; and the Jews, 5929. Only 217 persons are returned as members of the Bráhma Samáj, or reformed sect of Theistic Hindus, of whom 196 are in the single District of Násik; but this figure gives no idea of the actual number of those who sympathise with the movement.

Houses, etc.—The total number of houses ascertained by the Census operations is 3,254,540, of which 336,629, inhabited by 1,885,910 persons, were classed as of the better sort or built of masonry. The total number of towns and villages is 28,369, with an average of 614 persons to each; and in addition there are 25,423 hamlets. There are altogether 178 towns, each with more than 5000 inhabitants. The total population of these 178 towns is 2,775,812, or 17·10 per cent. of the population of the Presidency. The number of the municipalities does not coincide with that of the towns. In 1872, there were altogether 199 municipalities, of which 95 contained less than 5000 inhabitants. The aggregate population within municipal limits was 2,468,499, or 15·21 per cent. of the total. In that year the total gross municipal income, including Bombay city, was £494,746, the average incidence of municipal taxation being Rs. 2. 0. 1, or 4s. 0⅛d. per head. The following six towns each have a population exceeding 50,000:—BOMBAY CITY,

644,405; POONA, 118,886; AHMEDABAD, 116,873; SURAT, 107,149; KARACHI (KURRACHEE), 53,526; SHOLAPUR, 53,403.

Agriculture.—The wide extent and the varied configuration of the Bombay Presidency permit great variations of agriculture. The two most important food crops are *bájra* or great millet (Sorghum vulgare) and *joári* or spiked millet (Holcus spicatus), which are especially cultivated in the Deccan. Rice is chiefly grown in the low lands of the Konkan. Wheat is extensively cultivated in parts of Guzerat and in Sind, and barley is grown in the same localities to a smaller extent. The aboriginal tribes mainly support themselves on inferior cereals, such as *náchaní* (Eleusine corocana) and *kodra* (Paspalum scrobiculatum), which they plant in patches of cultivation amid the primeval jungle that clothes the hillsides. The most important kinds of pulse are gram or chickpea (Cicer arietinum), *túr* (Cajanus Indicus), *kúlthi* (Dolichos biflorus), and *múg* (Phaseolus mungo). The oil-seeds are mustard, linseed (of which the fibres are not utilized as flax), castor-oil, *til* (Sesamum orientale), which yields the gingelly oil of commerce, and *kasamba* or safflower (Carthamus tinctorius). Among fibres, cotton holds by far the chief place both in the Deccan and in Guzerat; *ambári* or Deccan hemp (Hibiscus cannabinus) and *san* or Konkani hemp (Crotolaria juncea) are also grown. The miscellaneous crops include tobacco, of which the finest quality is produced in Káira District; sugar-cane, which requires a rich soil and a perennial water supply; potatoes, grown in the hill country near Poona; red pepper, turmeric, other spices, and indigo. It will be observed that this list leaves few staples available for export, besides cotton, oil-seeds, and wheat. The revenue system of Bombay, based upon a cadastral survey of every cultivated field, allows the collection of elaborate agricultural statistics. Commencing from the village as the revenue unit, and rising through the *tálukas* or Subdivisions up to the District organization, the minutest particulars affecting the administration of the land are carefully recorded and checked year by year. The results, therefore, may be accepted as more trustworthy, at least for comparative purposes, than in most other parts of India. The following are the statistics of cultivation for the year 1875-76, excluding certain Districts to which the system of the revenue survey has not yet been extended:—Total area of cultivable lands liable to Government assessment, 25,047,306 acres; total area actually under cultivation, 20,779,595, of which 18,760,499 acres are classified as dry-crop lands, and 1,390,657 as rice lands. Still further diminishing the total area by the exclusion of Sind, the chief crops are thus distributed over an aggregate area of 14,056,280 acres; *joári*, 4,834,938; *bájra*, 3,006,656; rice, 852,420; wheat, 849,357; pulses, 1,057,521; oil-seeds, 847,363; cotton, 1,519,619; tobacco, 42,273; sugar-cane, 38,920.

Cotton.—The cultivation of the great export staple of cotton is sufficiently important to deserve special mention. Even before the close of the last century, India exported a considerable amount of raw cotton to England, but this was mainly grown in Bundelkhand, collected at Ghazipur, and shipped from Calcutta. The trade was fostered by the East India Company; but it does not appear to have been of a profitable nature, and the totals despatched fluctuated greatly year by year. Bombay appears not to have entered into the business until about 1825. For many years afterwards the shipments of cotton were liable to great vicissitudes, depending chiefly upon the yield of the American crop. But the Indian cultivators found their opportunity when the war between the North and South in the United States cut off the supplies of the English manufacturer, and caused the 'cotton famine' among the mill operatives in Lancashire. During the five years ending with 1853-54, the export of cotton from Bombay had averaged under 180 million lbs., valued at 2½ millions sterling; in the five years ending 1868-69, the average quantity had risen to 424 million lbs., and the average value to nearly 20 millions sterling. In the single year 1864-65, the value was as high as £30,370,482. This period of extraordinary prosperity led to much wild speculation. The collapse came in 1865, on the termination of the American war. The bubble schemes and financial companies in Bombay city burst one after the other, and brought down in the general ruin the State Bank. Meanwhile, the cultivators had turned the excessive profits of a few years into the solid form of gold and silver ornaments. Prices have fallen very heavily, but the quantity of cotton grown is maintained. In 1875-76, the amount exported was 3,722,436 cwts., valued at £10,209,389, or nearly as large a quantity as when speculation was at its height, though the value is diminished to one-third. In the same year the total area under cotton in the Bombay Presidency, including Sind and the Native States, was 4,408,235 acres, with an estimated out-turn of 1,877,696 cwts. Of the total area, 3,885,673 acres were planted with indigenous, and 343,293 with exotic cotton, the latter being almost confined to the Districts of Dhárwár and Khandesh and the South Marhattá group of States. The yield per acre varied from a maximum of 346 lbs. of cleaned cotton in Sind to a minimum of 14·33 lbs. in Sholápur, the average for the entire Presidency being 47¾ lbs. In the same year the total number of steam gins was 2585. Out of a total export from Bombay of 1,010,284 bales, 502,030 bales, or almost exactly one-half, were full pressed up-country before they reached Bombay. Much has been done of late years to improve the quality of the cotton grown in the Presidency. American varieties have been introduced successfully into Dhárwár and other parts of the South Marhattá country. In Khandesh the indigenous plant, from which one of the lowest classes in the Bombay

market took its name, has now been almost superseded by the Hinganghát variety from the Central Provinces, under the trade name Amráoti ('Oomrawutty'). Agricultural experiments in cotton as well as in other crops are made at three State Model Farms at Hála in Sind, in Khandesh, and in Dhárwár. Though these experiments have not resulted in pecuniary profit, much valuable information has been gained. At the same time, the pernicious habit of adulterating cotton has been checked by the stringent enforcement of the Cotton Frauds Act.

Irrigation. — Except in Sind, where the annual rainfall is insignificant, and the crops are entirely dependent upon artificial supplies of water drawn from the Indus by a network of canals, irrigation is not generally practised in the Bombay Presidency. In bad seasons every advantage is taken of the water that is available for use in river-beds, tanks, or wells, but there are no irrigation works constructed on a scale sufficiently large to give permanent benefit to wide areas of country. Within the last few years some steps have been taken in this direction, but the broken character of the greater part of the country does not readily lend itself to such schemes. In the year 1875-76, out of a total area of 25,047,306 acres of cultivable land, including Sind, the area under irrigation was thus classified: irrigated garden lands, 313,215 acres; rice lands irrigated from tanks and water-courses, 439,301 acres; total irrigated, 752,516 acres. The irrigation system of Sind will be described in the separate article on that Province. The most important works which have been already carried out in Bombay proper are the following:—the Kistna (Krishna) Canal in Satára District, formed by throwing a masonry dam across the bed of the river; the Ekruk Tank in Sholápur, formed by an earthen dam across the entire valley of the Adela; and the waterworks at Kírki, destined to irrigate the surrounding fields as well as to supply water to the city of Poona. In the year 1875-76, a sum of £450,893 was expended through the Public Works Department on agricultural works, including the canals of Sind. The severe famine of 1877 has drawn increased attention to this important subject, and plans have been prepared for the construction of irrigation works in all parts of the Presidency, to be commenced as funds permit.

The land revenue system of Bombay is based upon the principle of measuring every field separately, and assessing it at a sum fixed for a term of thirty years, the amount of assessment being determined by the quality of the soil and the crop. This plan was first introduced in 1836, in the case of the Indápur *táluka* of Poona District, and has since been gradually extended over the greater part of the Presidency. It differs from the method adopted in the North-Western Provinces, in that the assessment is made direct with the individual cultivators, and not with

the village community; and it differs from the *rayatwárí* system of Madras, by not requiring a fresh assessment to be made every year. Prior to the introduction of the revenue survey, general anarchy prevailed, both with regard to the rights possessed by different parties in the soil, and also with regard to the proportion of the produce payable to Government. There can be no doubt that the immediate result of the change was to improve the condition of the cultivator with marvellous rapidity. He has received a right of occupancy in his holding, simply conditional on payment of the Government demand. This right of occupancy, commonly known as 'the survey tenure,' has been described as 'a transferable and heritable property continuable without question at the expiration of a settlement lease, on the occupier's consenting to the revised rate.' The average rates of assessment are—Rs. 0. 12. 7, or 1s. 7d., per acre on dry crops; Rs. 3. 11. 4, or 7s. 5d., on garden lands; and Rs. 3. 9. 5, or 7s. 2d., on rice land. The maximum on dry-crop lands is Rs. 2. 3. 4, or 4s. 5d., per acre in the rich black country of Guzerat, and the minimum is R. 0. 6. 6, or 9¾d., in the barren hill-tracts of the Konkan. Within the last few years the terms of assessment in the Districts earliest settled have begun to fall in, and consequently a revision of the assessment has become necessary. In the course of the inquiries it has been discovered that the cultivator has not reaped all the advantages that had been hoped from the simplicity of the system. His chronic condition of indebtedness to the village money-lender has produced consequences not dissimilar to those caused by the *zamíndárí* system in Bengal. No intermediate rights in the soil have been suffered to grow up between the cultivator and the State; but the personal obligations under which the cultivator has placed himself towards his money-lender enable the latter to appropriate to himself the unearned increment as completely as if he were a landlord. Yet despite these unfavourable revelations, the progress of the new survey has proved that the old rate of assessment was so low as to bear enhancement without encroaching unduly upon the share of the produce that should belong to the cultivator. In the year 1875-76, a total number of 766 villages, paying a revenue of £84,702, were surveyed; and as the result of the operations, the gross demand was raised 28 per cent. Side by side with the survey tenure, there exist various forms of land-holding which have come down from the days of native rule, though none of them are now prevalent to a wide extent. Among these the *tálukdárí*, *wánta*, *narwádárí*, and *máleki* tenures in Guzerát deserve mention. In the Districts of the Southern Konkan, the survey has not yet been introduced. The land is there held by a class of petty landlords called *khóts*, whose rights as against the Government have not yet been finally determined. The non-regulation Province of Sind enjoys a land system of its own. The greater part of the land is now cultivated by peasant

proprietors, who are supposed to have taken the place of large landlords within comparatively recent times. The rates of assessment depend upon the facility for irrigation from the Indus, and payment in cash has been substituted for the old practice of an actual division of the crop.

The Famine of 1876-77 was felt throughout the Deccan and South Marhattá country, though less severely than in the adjoining Districts of Madras (*q.v.*) and Mysore. The same set of meteorological causes operated over all Southern India. The total rainfall of the year was everywhere deficient, but the disastrous effect upon agriculture was determined mainly by local variations. The preceding season of 1875 had also been below the average, so that the pressure of high prices fell upon a population already impoverished. In 1876 the summer rains of the south-west monsoon, which commence in July, were scanty. But the effects of this monsoon on cultivation are chiefly confined to the Konkan and Malabar coast, where the normal rainfall is so excessive that little injury was wrought by the deficiency. The autumn rains of the north-east monsoon, upon which the tableland behind the Gháts is mainly dependent, failed altogether. At Poona the heavy rain, which usually falls continuously during September and October, was represented by only two moderately wet days. The result was a general failure of the winter crops, over an area in this Presidency estimated at 39,000 square miles, with a population of nearly six million souls. Serious distress began in November 1876, and lasted for about twelve months. In April 1877 the number of people employed by Government on relief works was 287,000. In July of the same year the persons in the receipt of gratuitous relief numbered 160,000. The District most affected was Kaládgi, bordering on the Nizám's dominions, where the relieved numbered 14 per cent. of the total population. But these vague figures convey but an inadequate idea of the general impoverishment produced by this disastrous year. The statistics of the Bombay mint show in a decisive manner how even the well-to-do portion of the population suffered. In the two years 1877 and 1878 the total value of silver ornaments and disused coins brought into the mint as bullion exceeded $2\frac{1}{4}$ millions sterling, against only £4000 in the previous year. The single aspect of this great calamity which can be dwelt upon with satisfaction is the efficiency of the civil administration. No interference with private trade was attempted, but the starving population was everywhere provided with work, by which they could earn sufficient wages to purchase the food that poured in from all quarters. The opportunity was taken to push on schemes of irrigation and other remunerative public works, which had long previously been matured on paper.

Manufactures.—Apart from the new industry of cotton spinning and

weaving by means of steam machinery, the manufacture of cotton cloth in handlooms is still conducted in almost every village throughout the Presidency. A curious distinction in this respect separates the Gujaráthí and Maráthí speaking races. The former prefer their cotton goods printed, while the latter only wear stuffs that have been dyed in the thread. The decoration generally consists of a simple border, but the more expensive articles are frequently finished off with silk, or with gold and silver lace. Sind weavers are reckoned the most skilful. The best *sáris* or women's robes are printed at Ahmedábád and Surat. Even to the present day the majority of the population wear home-spun and home-woven goods; but within the past few years the twists and yarns produced in the Bombay mills have found great favour with native weavers. A peculiar mode of ornamenting cotton and silk goods, known as *chindári*, is common throughout the Presidency. The cloth, after being once dyed, is marked with the desired pattern, the outline of which is picked and twisted so as to form a raised surface; the cloth is then again put into the vat to be dyed a fresh colour, and when taken out the raised threads are removed, leaving the pattern of the original colour underneath. Carpets, rugs, horse-cloths, towels, napkins, etc., are manufactured in the jails throughout the Presidency, especially in Sind. Ahmednagar is celebrated for its carpets, and Khandesh and Dhárwár for drugget rugs and bullock-cloths. The raw material employed in manufactures of silk is imported from China. The chief seats of silk-weaving are Ahmedábád, Surat, Poona, Násik, and Yeola. The two first of these places produce *kinkhábs*, or brocades of silk and gold and silver thread, which are famous throughout India; the three last have a reputation for silk or cotton *sáris*, finished off with rich borders of gold, silver, or silk lace, and beautifully filled in with designs executed on the looms. The preparation of gold and silver thread is performed with great skill. It is said that one rupee's worth of silver can be drawn out into a thread 800 yards in length. The metallic thread is either twisted with silk before being used in the loom, or sometimes beaten out flat to form a warp by itself. The embroidery of various articles with gold and silver thread for the use of the Muhammadan and Pársí communities, or for the European market, is carried on at Haidarábád in Sind, in Káthiáwár, and at Baroda, Surat, and Bombay. The manufacture of coarse paper from raw vegetable fibres is conducted in several of the large towns, especially at Ahmedábád and Baroda. Woollen manufactures are almost confined to the saddle-cloths, blankets, and felts of Sind. Among articles of leather work may be mentioned the *dabaro*, or large vessel used for holding oil, etc., which is formed by stretching a fresh skin round an inner mould of clay. Saddle covers, shoes, leggings, and accoutrements are made in Sind, and the ancient manufacture of shields at Ahmedábád has not yet entirely died out.

The common pottery of the Presidency is of a very rude description, but Sind produces some of the best potters' ware of all India. The art is thought to have been introduced by the Amírs, or former Muhammadan rulers, whose mosques and tombs attest the degree of excellence attained. The Bombay School of Art is now successfully promoting the revival of this industry. Special qualities of pottery are made at Pátan in the State of Baroda, and at Ahmedábád. Násik and Poona are celebrated for their brass-ware. Bombay city and Ahmedábád also turn out large quantities of brass utensils, which have been hammered by native workmen out of sheets imported from Europe. In the department of cutlery, spear-heads are made at Ahmednagar, and hunting-knives, swords, and chain armour in Cutch, Káthiáwár, and Baroda. Ironwork, besides cutlery, is still hammered with great skill at Ahmedábád, where the beautiful gates of the tomb of Sháh Alam afford an example of an extinct industry in perforated brasswork. Fine art is represented by a large number of ornamented articles manufactured in all parts of the Presidency. The personal decorations of the women of Guzerat are distinguished by solidity, and those of Marhattí women by intricacy of design. The Muhammadans and Pársís also have each styles of ornament peculiar to themselves. The goldsmith's work of Sind is very beautiful. The embossed gold and silver work of the Cutch workmen is much sought after, and they have established a colony at Ahmedábád. This city and Surat are also celebrated for wood-carving. Most of the houses are ornamented in this way, and furniture and boxes are carved in ebony and blackwood. The best sandal-wood carving comes from Coompta (Kúmptá) in Kanara. Sculpture has been practised by the stone-cutters of Cutch and Káthiáwár from time immemorial. The more elaborate portions of the stonework on the recently erected public buildings in Bombay were executed by these workmen, trained in the School of Art and the Public Works Department.

Cotton Mills.—Within the last twenty years the spinning and weaving of cotton by steam machinery, and under European supervision, has become an important industry. The local cotton-mills have certain natural advantages. Both the raw material and the market for the manufactured produce lie at their feet. In addition, they have been stimulated into artificial activity by the import duty of 5 per cent. *ad valorem* on sea-borne cotton manufactures. The first mill was started in Bombay in 1857; and according to the latest returns, there are now (1877) 28 mills at work in Bombay city and its neighbourhood, and 10 in other parts of the Presidency, not including those in contemplation or in course of erection. These 38 mills employ a total of 1,043,944 spindles and 9291 looms. They are almost without exception the property of joint-stock companies. The hours of work for the operatives are from six in the

morning to six at night, with an hour allowed in the middle of the day for meals and smoking. A Factory Act is under preparation to regulate the hours of labour for children. The average wages per month are, for a girl, 10s.; a woman, 16s.; a man, £1, 12s. The natives are gradually learning to qualify themselves for the posts requiring superior skill, which are at present mostly occupied by operatives brought from England. Besides supplying the local demand, these cotton-mills are beginning to find a market in foreign countries, especially for their twist and yarn, which meets with much favour. During the year 1876-77 the exports of Indian twist were 7,926,710 lbs., valued at £367,302, of which by far the larger portion was sent to China.

Roads and Railways.—The roads throughout the Presidency are chiefly constructed and maintained out of local funds by the agency of the District officers. A two-thirds share of the 1 *ánná* cess levied on every rupee of land revenue is set apart for this purpose, and augmented by contributions from tolls, ferries, etc. In 1875-76, the receipts of the District Road Fund amounted to £252,233, and the expenditure to £291,492. Certain trunk roads, and the construction of important bridges, are under the charge of the Public Works Department, which in the same year expended £52,653 upon roads, and £25,029 upon bridges—total, £77,682, of which £42,999 was appropriated to original works, and £34,683 to repairs. The two chief railways under the control of the Bombay Government are the Great Indian Peninsular, with 1278 miles open in 1876, and the Bombay, Baroda, and Central Indian, with 417 miles. Both these are guaranteed railways of the standard gauge of 5 feet 6 inches; and in addition, there are several minor branches. Both have their terminus in Bombay Island. The former, after running a few miles east to Tanna, bifurcates into two branches, of which one runs north-east through Násik and Khandesh Districts, and then passes into the Central Provinces to join the East Indian Branch at Jabalpur (Jubbulpore); while the other turns south-east, and, after climbing the Gháts below Poona, finally joins the Madras Railway. In 1876 the net earnings of the Great Indian Peninsular Railway amounted to £1,169,264. The Bombay, Baroda, and Central Indian Railway runs due north along the sea-coast past the cities of Surat, Broach, and Baroda, and at present terminates at Ahmedábád, with a westerly branch through Northern Káthiáwár; but it is proposed to extend it so as to join the Rájputána State Railway. This line lies wholly within the limits of the Bombay Presidency. Up to 1876, the total capital expended upon it has been £7,726,623. In that year it carried a total of 4,325,148 passengers, and 509,318 tons of goods and minerals; the gross receipts were £620,793, and the gross expenses, £340,226, or 54·81 per cent., leaving as net earnings £280,567.

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Foreign Trade of the Bombay Presidency for 1875-76.

Imports.

Merchandise.		Quantity.	Value.
Arms and ammunition,		...	£223,288
Coal,	tons.	242,957	420,934
Cotton twist and yarn,	lbs.	7,293,637	608,960
Piece-goods (grey),	yds.	215,130,444	2,691,553
Piece-goods (white),	yds.	53,642,387	860,122
Piece-goods (coloured),	yds.	54,171,299	1,026,889
Drugs and medicines,		...	103,684
Dyeing materials,	cwt.	16,451	119,683
Glass-ware,		...	158,812
Hardware and cutlery,		...	185,458
Ivory,		...	230,894
Jewellery,		...	144,412
Spirits,	gals.	216,332	200,128
Wines and liqueurs,	gals.	168,337	148,748
Machinery,	cwt.	...	741,900
Copper,	cwt.	93,676	483,587
Iron,	cwt.	915,105	658,408
Paper,		...	120,021
Provisions,		...	370,918
Raw silk,	lbs.	2,140,607	597,406
Silk manufactures,	yds.	4,372,704	316,747
Spices,	lbs.	2,854,076	128,512
Sugar,	cwt.	586,804	861,849
Tea,	lbs.	2,089,521	200,007
Woollen manufactures,	yds.	2,971,435	293,962
Miscellaneous,		...	1,384,203
Total,		...	£13,481,085
Treasure.			
Gold,		...	£965,527
Silver,		...	2,633,530
Total,		...	£3,599,057
Government stores,		...	£471,759
Grand total,		...	£17,551,901

Exports.

Foreign Merchandise.		Quantity.	Value.
Piece-goods (grey),	yds.	16,846,741	£242,902
Piece-goods (coloured),	yds.	28,403,121	620,831
Ivory,		...	110,080
Sugar,	cwt.	86,247	122,716
Miscellaneous,		...	549,751
Total,		...	£1,646,280
Indian Produce and Manufactures.			
Raw cotton,	cwt.	3,722,436	£10,209,389
Cotton twist and yarn,	lbs.	6,098,679	260,835
Piece-goods,	yds.	8,100,686	153,433
Rice,	cwt.	223,767	103,325
Wheat,	cwt.	837,869	365,980
Skins (tanned),		...	114,109
Opium,		...	5,296,077
Linseed,	cwt.	2,161,652	1,192,673
Rapeseed,	cwt.	266,157	140,781
Gingelly or *til* seed,	cwt.	542,754	324,786
Spices,	lbs.	5,415,042	111,960
Raw wool,		...	697,636
Shawls,		...	125,180
Miscellaneous,		...	921,992
Total,		...	£20,018,156
Treasure.			
Gold,		...	£205,511
Silver,		...	873,400
Total,		...	£1,078,911
Government stores and treasure,		...	£89,947
Grand total,		...	£22,833,294

Continued from page 197.]

There are no navigable canals in the Presidency, but the main channel of the Indus is kept open by the State at an annual cost of about £6000.

Commerce and Trade.—The table on the preceding page gives the principal items of the foreign trade of the Bombay Presidency, excluding Sind, for the year 1875-76. The commerce of Sind will be fully treated of in the special article on that Province.

The preceding table shows that the total sea-borne foreign trade of Bombay Presidency, including both imports and exports, reached a total value of £40,385,195. These figures are exclusive of the coasting trade, which in 1875-76 amounted to a total value of £10,740,770 imports, and £10,864,889 exports; grand total, £21,605,659. The foreign trade was thus distributed among the chief countries:—United Kingdom—imports £11,563,292, exports £9,546,865; China—imports £2,081,005, exports £5,783,921; Mauritius—imports £745,273, exports £427,952; Arabia—imports £607,659, exports £601,465; Persia — imports £306,441, exports £504,331; Italy — imports £303,179, exports £586,179; France—imports £218,145, exports £2,047,176. The grand total of vessels that entered the ports of Bombay Presidency with cargoes from foreign countries during the year 1875-76 was 846, with a tonnage of 592,673 tons, of which 305 vessels and 361,324 tons were steam vessels. Out of the grand total, 375 vessels, and 443,252 tons, were of British nationality. In addition, 21 vessels, with a tonnage of 19,064 tons, entered in ballast. The coasting trade was carried on by 75,412 vessels, with a tonnage of 1,532,285 tons, of which 73,667 vessels and 1,062,174 tons were native craft. Excluding the two great harbours of Bombay and Karáchi, the remaining ports in the Presidency are divided into two groups—the northern, comprising 22 ports between Gogo and the Bassein creek; and the southern, which includes 51 ports between Bassein and Bhatkal in North Kanara. About four-fifths of the coasting trade is conducted by the southern group.

Administration.—The Government of the Presidency of Bombay is administered by a body termed the Governor-in-Council, consisting of the Governor as President, two ordinary civil members, and the Commander-in-Chief of the Bombay Presidency. The various departments of the administration are portioned out among the several members of council, and for each department there is a separate secretariat staff. In addition to, and inclusive of this Executive Council, there is a Legislative Council, containing from four to eight persons nominated by the Governor, of whom some represent the non-official European and native communities. The District is the actual unit of administration for both fiscal and judicial purposes. The Regulation Districts

of Bombay number 17, each under the control of a Collector, who must be a member of the Covenanted Civil Service. The Province of Sind, and the Pánch-Mahále, form 6 non-regulation Districts, under officers called Deputy Commissioners, who may be military officers or uncovenanted servants. The city of Bombay is regarded for many purposes as forming a District by itself. Each District is on the average divided into 10 *tálukas*, or Subdivisions, each of which again contains about 100 Government villages, or villages of which the revenue has not been alienated by the State. Every village is, for fiscal and police, as well as social purposes, complete by itself. It has its regular complement of officials, who are usually hereditary, and are remunerated by grants of land held revenue free. The more important of these officials are the *pátel* or head-man; the *taláti* or *kulkarni*, who is the clerk and accountant; the *mhár*, who is a kind of beadle; and the watchman. Over each *táluka* or Subdivision is set a Government officer termed a *mamlatdár;* and on an average about 3 *tálukas* are placed in charge of an Assistant or Deputy Collector. General supervision is exercised by Revenue Commissioners, 2 for the Regulation Districts and 1 for Sind. The supreme administration of justice in the Regulation Districts is entrusted to the High Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and seven Puisne Judges, which exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases. In Sind, the same functions are discharged by the Judicial Commissioner. The ordinary administration of both civil and criminal justice is vested in officials styled District and Assistant District Judges. Minor civil suits are decided by two classes of Subordinate Judges, and by the Small Cause Courts; and the greater part of the original criminal work is disposed of by the executive District officers, who in addition to their revenue duties are entrusted with magisterial powers. As compared with the administration of justice in other parts of India, the Bombay system is characterised by the permanent differentiation, at an early stage in their career, of the persons by whom judicial and executive functions are performed. The remaining principal departments of Government are the police, public works, forests, education, jails, registration and medical departments, each of which possesses an organization extending throughout all the different Districts of the Presidency.

Political relations between the Government and the Native States in connection with the Bombay Presidency are maintained by the presence of an Agent or representative at the principal native courts. The position and duty of the Agent varies very considerably in the different States, being governed by the terms of the original treaties, or by recent *sanads* or patents. In some instances, as in Cutch, his power is confined to the giving of advice, and to the exercise of a general surveillance. In other cases the Agent is invested with an actual share in

the administration; while States whose rulers are minors—and the number of these is always large—are directly managed by Government officers. The characteristic feature of the Bombay Native States is the excessive number of petty principalities, such as those of the Rájput and Bhíl chieftains. The peninsula of Káthiáwár alone contains no less than 187 separate States. The recognition of these innumerable jurisdictions is due to the circumstance, that the early Bombay administrators were induced to treat the *de facto* exercise of civil and criminal jurisdiction by a land-holder as carrying with it a quasi-sovereign status. The rule of succession by primogeniture applies only to the larger principalities, and consequently the minor States are continually suffering disintegration.

The Bombay army in 1876 consisted of a strength of 11,238 Europeans and 25,769 natives; total, 37,007 fighting men. This force was made up of 1 regiment of European and 9 regiments of native cavalry; 122 European and 481 native sappers; 18 batteries of European artillery with 83 guns, and 2 of native artillery with 8 guns; 9 regiments of European and 30 of native infantry. The military headquarters are at Poona; and there are besides 14 cantonment stations, including Aden at the mouth of the Red Sea, and Mau (Mhow), Nimach (Neemuch), Nasirábád (Nusseerabad), and Disá (Deesa), in Central India, which all lie beyond the geographical limits of the Presidency. The military convalescent stations are Purandhar on the hills, and Kolába and Ghisri Bande on the sea-coast. In the year 1875-76, the total military expenditure amounted to £2,381,404, of which £561,568 belongs to the European, and £723,533 to the native army; £976,086 was devoted to effective services, and £120,215 to non-effective services, including £101,563 for pensions.

The Bombay Marine in 1876 consisted of ten steam vessels, two hulks in ordinary, and two iron-clad turret monitors (the *Abyssinia* and the *Magdala*) for the defence of Bombay harbour. The total establishment consisted of 694 officers and men. Of the ten steam vessels mentioned above, two were stationed at Aden, and two in the Persian Gulf. The total expenditure during the year 1875-76 was £169,315, against which must be set off receipts amounting to £69,938.

The police consists of several distinct forces,—the Regular District Police, the Bombay City Police, the Railway Police, and the Village Watch. The last-mentioned body is maintained only in certain parts of the country, at the expense of the villagers, and is not directly under the control of Government. The Bombay City Police will be treated of in a separate article. The following figures, therefore, only apply to the Regular and the Railway Police. In the year 1875-76, these two forces consisted of a strength of 3169 officers and 16,140

men—total, 19,309; being 1 man to every 6·5 square miles as compared with the area of the Presidency, or 1 to every 849 of the population. The total cost was £319,340, of which £31,772 was payable from other sources than Provincial revenue, showing an average cost of £2, 11s. 4d. per square mile of area, and 4½d. per head of population. Of the total force, 8692 men were armed with fire-arms, and 6158 with swords, the rest having only batons. In 1875-76, the total number of cases of cognisable crime reported was 49,177; 48,217 persons were put on their trial, of whom 32,570, or 67 per cent., were convicted. The total number of non-cognisable cases was 20,485; 35,353 persons were arrested or summoned, of whom 12,024, or 34 per cent., were convicted. The total number of persons, therefore, convicted of some offence or other was 44,594, or 1 in every 366 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences.

Jails.—In 1875, there were altogether 25 jails in Bombay Presidency, including the common jail and the house of correction in Bombay city, the central jail at Yerauda, near Poona, and the jail at Aden; and 75 subordinate lock-ups. In addition, there must be added the Nará gang of convicts in Sind. In that year the daily average prison population was 9008, of whom 332 were women. These figures show 1 prisoner always in jail to every 1815 of the population, and 1 woman in jail to every 23,511 of the female population. The number of deaths was 301, or 3·3 per cent. of the average strength. The gross total expenditure was £105,624, or £11, 14s. 6d. per head. Jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £12,152, or £1, 10s. per manufacturing prisoner.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The following table shows the revenue and expenditure of the Bombay Presidency for the year 1875-76, including provincial, local, and municipal funds.

The table, which has been specially compiled from the materials given in the Administration Report for the year, must not be accepted as an accurate balance-sheet of the finances of the Presidency. For example, the receipts from opium are not, properly speaking, an item of revenue to Bombay, but a tax levied upon the Chinese consumer of a drug which has been produced in Central India. Similarly, on the other side of the account, items of imperial expenditure, such as the army and interest on debt, are not debited against the Bombay treasury. It must also be observed that the apparently adverse balance in the department of Provincial funds is equalized by a grant of £982,233 from the imperial exchequer, which sum is again debited as imperial expenditure in the Bombay accounts.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF BOMBAY PRESIDENCY FOR 1875-76.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
Imperial Receipts.	£	*Imperial Expenditure.*	£
Land Revenue (including village allowances), . .	3,694,356	Interest, etc., . . .	76,238
Tributes and Contributions from Native States, . .	94,712	Refunds, etc., . . .	79,386
Forests, ...	124,867	Land Revenue, . . .	658,863
Excise, ...	397,528	Forests, ...	77,904
Customs, ...	715,690	Excise, ...	6,151
Salt, ...	880,440	Customs, ...	79,648
Opium, ...	2,549,496	Salt, ...	56,101
Stamps, ...	466,985	Opium, ...	1,807
Mint, ...	51,709	Stamps, ...	15,617
Post Office, ...	122,177	Mint, ...	36,361
Law and Justice, . . .	28,288	Post Office, ...	125,999
Marine, ...	69,938	Administration, . . .	157,473
Interest, ...	113,305	Minor Departments, . .	13,981
Receipts in aid of Superannuation Allowances, etc.,	131,843	Law and Justice, . . .	420,021
Gain by Exchange, . . .	14,308	Marine, ...	169,315
Miscellaneous, ...	68,839	Ecclesiastical, . . .	30,986
		Medical Services, . .	26,466
		Political Agencies, . .	78,774
		Allowances and Assignments,	757,308
		Superannuation, . . .	140,485
		Loss by Exchange, . .	498,861
		Miscellaneous, . . .	24,354
Total, . .	9,520,481	Total, . .	3,532,099
Provincial Funds.		*Provincial Funds.*	
Jails, ...	26,795	Jails, ...	79,828
Registration, ...	23,090	Registration, ...	22,868
Police, ...	41,536	Police, ...	403,785
Education, ...	19,697	Education, ...	100,220
Medical, ...	9,645	Medical, ...	88,808
Printing, ...	4,290	Printing, ...	22,306
Public Works, ...	7,660	Minor Establishments, .	15,641
Miscellaneous, ...	5,947	Office Rent, etc., . . .	19,811
		Public Works, . . .	334,513
		Miscellaneous, . . .	8,992
Total, . .	138,620	Total, . .	1,096,772
Local Funds.		*Local Funds.*	
District Road Fund, . . .	252,233	District Road Fund, . .	291,492
District Educational Fund, .	126,528	District Educational Fund, .	139,966
Public Works Tolls, . .	53,272	Public Works Tolls, . .	53,554
Port Funds, ...	25,602	Port Funds, ...	19,982
Cotton Improvement Fund,	14,316	Cotton Improvement Fund,	13,286
Esplanade Fee Fund, . .	10,050	Esplanade Fee Fund, . .	6,533
Station Improvement Fund,	9,312	Station Improvement Fund,	19,543
Miscellaneous, . . .	22,757	Miscellaneous, . . .	53,790
Total, . .	524,080	Total, . .	598,146
Municipal Funds.		*Municipal Funds.*	
Bombay Municipality, . .	314,352	Bombay Municipality, . .	326,502
Other Municipalities, . .	222,895	Other Municipalities, . .	233,805
Total, . .	537,247	Total, . .	560,307
GRAND TOTAL, .	10,720,428	GRAND TOTAL, .	5,887,224

Education.—The educational system in Bombay, as throughout the rest of India, is based upon the celebrated Despatch of Sir Charles Wood, dated 19th July 1854. It consists on the one hand of a widely distributed class of vernacular or village schools, subsidised by grants-in-aid from Government, and under inspection by the Educational Department; and on the other, of a limited number of institutions, which teach in English up to the curriculum of the University, and are for the most part maintained at Government expense. In the year 1876-77, the total number of schools and colleges in the Presidency was 4464, attended by 249,441 pupils, showing 1 school to each 39·66 square miles of area, and 10·4 pupils to every thousand of the population. The total expenditure of the department amounted to £234,999, of which £111,284 was derived from Provincial funds, £70,487 from a local rate or cess, and £25,546 from fees and fines. The vernacular schools alone numbered 4008, attended by 210,370 scholars. These are mainly supported by an allotment of one-third of the 1 anna cess on every rupee of the land revenue, augmented by the grant of a lump sum from Government. In addition, there were 236 girls' schools, with 12,208 pupils, of which nearly one-half are private institutions. The number of Government institutions giving instruction in English was 219, with 18,657 pupils. This total includes 7 colleges, of which the most important are the Elphinstone College in Bombay city, with 203 pupils, and the Deccan College at Poona, with 75. Among institutions for special instruction may be mentioned—the Law School, with 113 students; the Grant Medical College, with 286; and the Poona Civil Engineering College, with 164. The Jamsetjee Jeejebhoy School of Art, with 132 pupils, is also under the Education Department. The Bombay University was founded by Lord Elphinstone in 1857. It consists of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, and senate; and its sole function is to examine and confer degrees in arts, law, medicine, and engineering. Large endowments have been received at different times from the wealthy merchants of Bombay, by means of which a handsome hall and library have recently been erected on the esplanade. During the ten years ending 1875-76, a total of 2446 students passed the entrance examination, 603 graduated in arts, of whom 32 took the superior degree of M.A., 38 in law, 149 in medicine, and 130 in civil engineering. In the year 1876-77, a total number of 1537 candidates presented themselves for the several examinations, of whom only 336 passed. The successful candidates were thus classified—Europeans and Eurasians, 12; native Christians, 20; Hindus, 209; Muhammadans, 7; Pársís, 88.

The languages spoken in the Bombay Presidency are Maráthí, Gujaráthí, Sindhí, and Kanarese; Urdu or Hindustáni is also in common use among the educated and trading Muhammadans. In the

year 1875-76, the total number of books registered on publication was 735, of which 103 were printed in English, 215 in Maráthí, 188 in Gujaráthí, 22 in Sindhí, and 11 in Kanarese. The total number of printing presses was 87, of which as many as 47 are found in Bombay city, and 20 in the Deccan. The number of native newspapers appearing was 61, either printed or lithographed, of which 34 are Maráthí and 26 Gujaráthí. Two of these papers, edited in Bombay city by Pársís, have existed for 57 and 45 years respectively. The leading association for the advancement of learning in the Presidency is the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, originally founded in 1804, with which the Bombay Geographical Society was amalgamated in 1874. It now numbers 183 members. The Medical and Physical Society was founded in 1863. The Sassoon Mechanics Institute, with 346 members, has a reference library of 15,000 volumes. In the year 1875-76, the post offices received for delivery a total of 933,583 covers, and, in addition, 262,132 covers were collected from letter-boxes by the rural messengers.

Medical Aspects—Climate.—Great varieties of climate are met with in the Bombay Presidency. In its extreme dryness and heat, combined with the aridity of a sandy soil, Upper Sind resembles the deserts of Arabia. The thermometer here has been known to register 130° F. in the shade. At Haidarábád, in Lower Sind, the mean maximum temperature during the six hottest months in the year is 98·5° F., and the water of the Indus rises to blood-heat. In Cutch and Guzerat the sultry heat, if not so excessive, is still very trying. Bombay island itself, though in general cooled by the sea breeze, is oppressively hot during May and October. The Konkan is hot and moist, the fall of rain during the monsoon sometimes reaching 300 inches. The tableland of the Deccan above the Gháts possesses an agreeable climate, as also does the South Marhattá country. On the hills of Mahabaleshwar, Singarh, and other detached heights, Europeans may go out all hours of the day with impunity. According to a series of returns, extending over a period of twenty-eight years, taken at the meteorological station of Kolába, the mean annual temperature is 79·2° F., ranging from 73·6° in the month of January to 84·2° in May; the average annual rainfall is 70·30 inches, of which 70·8 fall in the seven months between May and November. The south-west monsoon generally breaks about the first week in June, and pours down torrents of rain along the coast. From that date up to October the rainy season may be said to last, during which travelling is everywhere difficult and unpleasant, except in Sind, where the monsoon rains exert little influence.

Diseases.—The most prevalent diseases are fevers of various types, including the malarious fever of Guzerat, especially dreaded by Europeans; cholera, which seems to display a curious tendency towards epidemic

outbreaks at triennial intervals; bowel complaints, including diarrhœa and dysentery; small-pox, which has recently been checked to some extent by the extension of the practice of vaccination; ague, rheumatic affections, lung diseases, syphilis and various cutaneous disorders. Conservancy arrangements are nowhere enforced except in the larger municipalities; but some improvement may be expected from the recent change by which the Sanitary and Vaccination Departments have been amalgamated, and an official with the title of Deputy Sanitary Commissioner placed in every District. The general vital statistics cannot be accepted as accurate, but they give some indication of the relative mortality from different diseases. During 1875, 375,718 deaths were registered throughout the Presidency, giving a death-rate of 23·15 per thousand, as compared with an average of 17·97 for the previous ten years. Of the total number of deaths, 219,156 were assigned to fevers, a very vague term among native practitioners; 47,555 to cholera, which was prevalent all through the year in an epidemic form, reaching its climax in the month of July; 33,650 to bowel complaints; and 3461 to small-pox. In the same year 340,829 births were registered, showing a birth-rate of 21·01 per thousand. Calculations based upon the ages of the population as returned by the Census of 1872 yield an average death-rate throughout the Presidency of 35·57 per thousand, and a birth-rate of 41·05. In the year 1875-76, a staff of 393 vaccinators was employed, who performed 808,353 operations at a total cost of £22,280.

Charitable institutions for medical relief consist of two classes. The Civil Hospitals in 1875-76 numbered 45, at which 242,089 patients were treated, including 24,081 in-patients, of whom 2192 died. The total expenditure in the previous year had been £77,309. The Dispensaries in 1875-76 numbered 122, of which 6 were in Native States; they were attended by 557,619 patients, including 5605 in-patients, of whom 378 died. The total expenditure was £24,171. There are 5 Lunatic Asylums in the Presidency, with 874 inmates in the year 1875. The expenditure was £8819, or an average of £14, 17s. 7d. per head.

Bombay.—The city of Bombay, the capital of the Presidency of the same name, and the principal seaport of Western India, is situated on an island in 18° 55′ 5″ N. lat., and 75° 53′ 55″ E. long. Bombay island is one of a cluster lying off the coast of the Konkan; and by the recent construction of causeways and breakwaters it is now permanently united on the north with the larger island of Salsette, and so continuously with the mainland. The remainder of the group of islands constitute a part of Tanna District. For certain administrative purposes, Bombay city is regarded as constituting a District by itself, with an area of 22 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1872, of 644,405 souls.

History.—The name of Bombay was erroneously supposed to have been given by the Portuguese, on account of the geographical position of the island—*Bom-bahia* or *Boa-bahia, statio fidissima nautis.* Colonel Yule, however, traces it back to the latter half of the compound name Tanna-Maiamba or Mayamba, which, according to Barbosa, *circ.* 1516, was used to designate the kingdom of the Konkan in the 16th century. The name appears as Maimbi in the very early geographical *Sommario de Regni*, translated from the Portuguese in Ramudio, written probably 1520-25. There can be little doubt that this word, in its turn, was a corruption of Mumba-devi, a goddess who had a famous shrine in the neighbourhood, mentioned in Forbes' *Rás Málá, circ.* 1630. The Portuguese of the 16th century call it Mombaim or Bombaim, never Bom-bahia or Boa-bahia. The history of Bombay begins with the cession of the island by the Portuguese to Charles II. in 1661, as part of the dowry of his queen, Catharina of Braganza. The adjoining islands, however, of Salsette and Karanja, still remained in the possession of the Portuguese. At this time the population was estimated at 10,000 souls, and the revenue at 75,000 *xeraphins*, or £6490. The king appears to have found his distant acquisition unprofitable, and in 1668 he transferred it to the East India Company on payment of an annual rent of £10 in gold. The Company forthwith took steps for the strengthening of the fortifications, and the encouragement of European settlers. Dr. Fryer, who visited the island in 1673, describes the population as numbering 60,000—'a mixture of most of the neighbouring countries, mostly rogues and vagabonds.' He has left an elaborate description of the place as it then existed. The fort or castle was armed with 120 pieces of ordnance; and the town, which lay at some distance, was a full mile in length. The greater number of the inhabitants, especially of the suburb of Mazagon, were engaged in fishing. The Portuguese still had several churches on the island. Between Parel and Máhim the sea had made a wide breach, drowning 40,000 acres of good land. But the most striking point in all the early accounts is the excessive unhealthiness of the place, which cannot be attributed solely to the mode of life of the residents. Fryer declares it as his opinion that out of every 500 Europeans who came to live on the island, not 100 left it. A current proverb affirmed, that two *mussoons* were the age of a man. The most fatal disease, called by the Portuguese practitioners 'the Chinese death,' has been identified with cholera. The name arose, apparently, from a fanciful French or Latin etymology for the '*mordexim*' or '*mor-de-chin*,' the old west-coast term for cholera. Garcia d'Orta (1568) distinctly states that it was an Indian word, *morxi.* It is, in fact, a corruption of the Maráthí and Konkani words *modachi* and *modshi*, meaning cholera.

At this time the factory of Surat, established sixty years before

the cession of Bombay, was the chief possession of the East India Company in Western India. Bombay itself was exposed to the ill-will of the Portuguese on Salsette island, who were able to cut off all direct communication with the mainland. The most formidable enemy, however, was the Sídí or Abyssinian admiral of the Mughal fleet, whose descendants are represented at the present day by the Nawáb of Janjírá. In 1668, the Sídí wintered at Mazagon, and laid siege to Bombay castle; and the town was only saved by a direct appeal to the emperor. During this period also, the English in India were greatly hampered by domestic dissensions. At last, in 1708, the two Companies privileged to trade with the East were fused into the United East India Company, and Bombay was chosen as the seat of one of the three independent Presidencies, each of which was ruled over by a Governor-in-Council. It was not till 1773 that Bombay was subjected to the control of the Governor-General. Henceforth the history of Bombay city merges into that of the Presidency. The only event that need be specially recorded is the first Marhattá war (1774-1782), which resulted, after many military vicissitudes, in the permanent occupation by the English of all the Bombay group of islands, and of the town of Tanna on the mainland. The city had long been a refuge for the fugitives from Marhattá oppression, who could there alone find safety for their industry and commerce; but after the downfall of the Peshwá in 1818, Bombay became the capital of a large territory, and from that year may be dated her pre-eminence in Western India. She was especially fortunate in her early governors. From 1819 to 1830 she was successively ruled by Mountstuart Elphinstone and Sir John Malcolm, of whom the former founded the present system of administration, and the latter, by opening the road through the Bor-Ghát, broke down the natural barrier that separated the sea-coast from the tableland of the Deccan. The next stage in the course of onward prosperity was reached when Bombay was brought into direct communication with Europe by means of the Overland Route. In the early years of the present century, express couriers or adventurous travellers used sometimes to make their way to or from India across the isthmus of Suez, or sometimes even through Persia. A monthly mail service was established by way of Egypt in 1838, and the contract was first taken up by the Peninsular and Oriental Company in 1855. Bombay is now recognised as the one port of arrival and departure for all the English mails, and also for the relief troop-ships of the Indian army. But the city could not have attained this position if the means of communication on the landward side had not received a corresponding measure of improvement. In 1850, the first sod was turned of the Great Indian Peninsular Railway, and three years afterwards the line was opened as far as Tanna, the first railway in the country. By 1863, the railway had been led up the formidable

Bor-Ghát to Poona, by a triumph of engineering skill. In 1870, through communication was established with Calcutta, and in 1871 with Madras.

But it is not only as the capital of a Presidency, or as the central point of arrival and departure for Indian travellers, that Bombay has achieved its highest reputation. It is best known as the great cotton market of Western and Central India, to which the manufacturers of Lancashire turned when the American war cut off their supplies. Even in the last century the E. I. Company was accustomed to export raw cotton as part of its investment, both to the United Kingdom and China. This trade continued during the early years of the present century, but it was marked by extreme vicissitudes in quantity and price, the demand being entirely determined by the out-turn of the American crop. The war between the Northern and Southern States was declared in 1861, and forthwith the merchants and shippers of Bombay took advantage of their opportunity. The exports of cotton rapidly augmented under the stimulus of high prices, until in 1864-65, the last year of the war, they reached a total value of 30 millions sterling, or nearly tenfold the average of ten years before. Large fortunes were, of course, acquired by successful ventures, and the wild spirit of speculation thus engendered spread through all classes of the community. The scenes of the South Sea Bubble were revived. No joint-stock project seemed too absurd to find subscribers. Banks, financial associations, and land companies, each with millions of nominal capital, were started every month, and their shares were immediately run up to fabulous premiums. The crash came in the spring of 1865, when the news was received of the termination of the American war. A panic ensued which baffles description, and the entire edifice of stock exchange speculation came toppling down like a house of cards. Merchants and private individuals were ruined by the thousand, and the Government Bank of Bombay collapsed along with the rest. But despite this sudden flood of disaster, honest trade was soon replaced on a stable basis; and the city of Bombay at the present day, in its buildings, its docks, and its land reclamations, stands as a monument of the grand schemes of public utility which were started during these four years of unhealthy excitement.

General Aspect.—In the beauty of its scenery, as well as in the commercial advantages of its position, Bombay is unsurpassed by any of the cities of the East. The Bombay island, or, as it may now be called, the Bombay peninsula, is connected with the mainland on the north by solid railway embankments. The approach from the sea reveals a magnificent panorama. The distance is closed by the barrier range of the Western Gháts. In front opens the wide harbour, studded with islands and jutting precipices, dotted with the white sails of innumer-

able native craft, and giving a secure shelter to fleets of tall merchantmen. The city itself consists of well-built houses, and broad streets ennobled by public buildings. The sea-shore is formed by docks, warehouses, and a long line of artificial embankments extending continuously for nearly 5 miles.

The island consists of a low-lying plain about 11 miles long by 3 broad, flanked by two parallel ridges of low hills. Point Kolába, the headland formed by the longer of these ridges, protects the harbour on its eastern side from the force of the open sea. The other ridge terminates in Malabar Hill; and between the two lies the shallow expanse of Back Bay. On a slightly raised strip of land between the head of Back Bay and the harbour is situated the Fort, the original nucleus round which the town grew up, but now chiefly occupied by commercial offices. From this point the land slopes westward to the central plain, which, before the construction of the embankment known as the Hornby Velard, was liable to be submerged at high tide. To the north and east, recent schemes of reclamation have similarly shut out the sea, and redeemed the foreshore for the use of commerce. In the extreme north of the island a large tract of salt marsh still remains unreclaimed.

The Government offices, the business houses, and the shops still cluster thickly in the neighbourhood of the Fort. Some of the hotels and commercial buildings are constructed on the American system, and for their splendid appearance have no rivals in other Indian cities. The houses in the native *bázár* are also handsomely built, rising three or four stories in height, with elaborately carved pillars and frontwork. In all the streets may be seen evidences of the wealth of the city, and of the magnificence of its merchant princes. The most conspicuous line of public buildings is on the esplanade facing towards Back Bay. Here is the Secretariat, an enormous erection in the Venetian-Gothic style of architecture; the University Senate Hall; the new High Court; and the offices of the Public Works Department, the Post and the Telegraph Office. At one end this block of buildings is terminated by the Sailors' Home, erected at the expense of a late Gáekwár of Baroda; and at the other end is a white marble statue of the Queen, under a Gothic canopy, the gift of the same prince. The most important buildings in the densely built tract known as the Fort, are the Custom House, the Town Hall, the Mint, and the Cathedral. The Castle and Fort George are the only two spots now retaining any traces of fortification. The real defences of Bombay consist at present of the two turret ships, *Abyssinia* and *Magdala*. A scheme for erecting ironclad forts mounted with heavy guns, in mid-channel at the entrance of the harbour, is still under consideration. The cost is estimated at one million sterling. The private houses of the European residents lie apart from the mercantile and the native quarters of the town. As a rule, each

is built in a large garden or compound; and although the style of architecture is less imposing than that of the stately mansions of Calcutta, it is well suited to the climate, and has a beauty and comfort of its own. In former times, the favourite quarter was the northern suburb of Parell, which has contained the official residence of the Governor of Bombay for the last hundred years. At present, the majority of the Europeans live on Malabar Hill, now terraced to the top with handsome houses, commanding a magnificent view over the city and the sea. North of Malabar Hill runs another European suburb, known as Breach Candy, where the houses are built close down upon the shore, within the refreshing sound of the waves. During the monsoon, Malabar Point is rendered almost uninhabitable by the violence of the wind and surf; and the Governor and his staff usually spend that season at Poona or Mahabaleshwar.

POPULATION OF BOMBAY CITY (1872).

RELIGION OR NATIONALITY.	NUMBER.	PERCENTAGE.
Buddhists or Jains,	15,121	2·35
Bráhmans,	25,757	4·00
Lingáyats,	1,242	·19
Bhattiás,	9,466	1·47
Hindu Súdras,	340,868	52·90
Hindu outcastes,	31,347	4·86
Muhammadans,	137,644	21·36
Negro Africans,	1,171	·18
Pársís,	44,091	6·84
Jews,	2,669	·41
Native Christians and Portuguese,	25,119	3·90
Eurasians,	2,352	·36
Europeans,	7,253	1·13
Chinese,	305	·05
Total,	644,405	...

Population.—Limiting the area of Calcutta to the municipality, and excluding the suburbs, Bombay ranks as the most populous city in India, and the second in the whole British Empire. According to the Census of 1872, the population of the Bombay municipality, which is co-extensive with Bombay island, and has an area of 22 square miles, is 644,405 souls, or an average of 28,988·08 persons per square mile. Taking the shore population only of 621,545, the average would fall to 27,959·74. The average in London was then 27,637·03 per sq. mile. The total number of houses of all kinds is 31,447, showing an average of 20·93 persons per house. The corresponding average in London was only 7·79. The proportion of males in the total population is 62·03 per cent. The preceding table gives the population classified according to religion or nationality, with the percentage of each class in the total.

It is probable that no city in the world presents greater varieties of national type than Bombay. The Hindu and the Muhammadan, of course, predominate in mere numbers, but in the busy streets the characteristic dress of every Oriental people may be seen. The green and gold turban of the Musalmán, the large red or white head-dress peculiar to the Marhattá, the pointed red turban of the Guzerati Bania, and the black Pársí hat, lend colour and variety to the scene. The Pársís in especial exercise an influence much greater than is implied by their actual numbers. When the commerce of Western India deserted Surat in the last century, they settled in Bombay; and now, by the force of their inherited wealth, their natural genius for trade, their intelligence, and their munificent charities, they hold the first place among the native community. Their position was gracefully recognised by the Crown when Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy received a baronetcy in 1857. The Hindu traders, or Banias, rank only second to the Pársís. They may be divided into two classes—the Banias of Guzerat, and the Márwárís of Central India. A large proportion of both these classes adhere to the Jain religion, generally regarded as a distinct offshoot of Indian Buddhism; while not a few of the remainder belong to the Vaishnav sect, especially that sub-denomination known as Vallábha-chárjyas. The Muhammadans include representatives from all the great countries that have embraced Islám—Arabs, Persians, Turks, Afgháns, Malays, and Africans. The three classes of trading Muham-madans—the Memons, Borahs, and Khojahs—are especially numerous. Their commercial dealings are chiefly confined to the Persian Gulf and the east coast of Africa, while the Pársís and Jews compete with the English in the markets of Europe.

Of the total area of the island, 8343 acres are returned as assessed arable land. The chief crop grown is rice; many varieties of garden vegetables are also cultivated, the chief being onions, and several members of the gourd tribe. The rearing of cocoa-nut trees, and the preparation of intoxicating drink from this tree and other species of palm, afford employment to a considerable section of the population.

Bombay supports all the many industries incidental to the active life of a great city and seaport. The trades of dyeing, tanning, and working in metal are specially prosperous. The School of Art has recently done much to encourage those technical faculties which depend upon an artistic and scientific education. But the characteristic feature of Bombay manufacture is the rapid growth of the European factory system. Mills, worked by steam, and employing a large number of operatives, have been erected by local capital, especially in the northern suburbs, where the tall chimney-stacks recall a factory town in Lancashire. In 1877, there were altogether 28 mills at work, with a total of about 817,957 spindles. The sea-borne commerce of Bombay

has been included in the tables given in the previous article for Bombay Presidency. In 1875-76, 39,568 sailing ships and 581 steamers entered the port, with a total tonnage of 1,535,729. The total value of the trade, both imports and exports, was £47,439,602. The principal article of import is cotton piece-goods, valued at £4,652,422; the chief article of export is raw cotton, valued at £9,945,613.

Administration.—Excluding the collection of the customs revenue of the port of Bombay, and other items of imperial revenue, such as stamps, excise, and land, amounting altogether to about £150,000 a year, the civil administration of Bombay city is entrusted to the municipal corporation created by the Act of 1872. One-half the members are elected by the ratepayers, and the rest are nominated by the Government and the Justices of the Peace. The members of the corporation in their turn elect eight out of twelve members of the Town Council, by whom the general administration of affairs is controlled. The remaining four members of the council, and the chairman, are nominated by Government. The principal officer is the municipal commissioner, also appointed by Government. In 1875, out of a total of 64 members of the corporation, 21 were Europeans, 21 Pársís, 16 Hindus, and 6 Muhammadans. The following table shows the balance-sheet for 1875-76:—

Balance-Sheet of Bombay Municipality for 1875-76.

Receipts.		Expenditure.	
House rate,	£55,274	General superintendence,	£11,390
Police rate,	22,057	Health department,	69,719
Government contribution to police,	9,000	Police and Fire Brigade,	37,298
Lighting rate,	21,663	Lighting,	25,517
Licences on carriages, etc.,	24,586	Assessment and collections,	13,671
Liquor licences,	15,898	Engineer's department,	24,907
Tobacco duty and licences,	14,595	Road repairs,	27,860
Town duties,	67,299	Waterworks (inc. debt),	22,826
Halalkor cess,	19,421	Interest and Sinking Fund,	28,650
Water rate,	30,021	Payment towards Government Loans,	24,333
Market receipts,	21,064	New works,	18,300
Miscellaneous,	13,474	Miscellaneous,	22,021
Total,	£314,352	Total,	£326,502

The *halalkor* cess and the water rate represent payments for services rendered. Excluding these two items, the receipts of the municipality from taxation would amount to £264,910, or an average rate of taxation of 8s. 5d. per head. Out of the income, £21,012 was paid as interest, and £50,543 towards the reduction of debt—total, £71,560. The total amount of the original debt up to 1876 was £886,800, of

which, however, £210,000 had been paid off, leaving a balance due of £677,800, or little more than two years' income. The total rateable value of the city was assessed at £1,155,000, having fallen from £1,630,000 within the past nine years. The municipal police in 1875-76 consisted of a strength of 1130 officers and men; and, in addition, there were 278 men paid from imperial sources and employed on harbour duty or as guards to Government offices: total strength, 1408 of all ranks, or 78 men to every square mile of area, and 1 man to every 457 of the population. The military force at Bombay consists of three batteries of artillery, a wing of a European regiment, and two battalions of native infantry. The headquarters of the Bombay army are at Poona. Education in 1876-77 was represented by 109 schools and colleges, with a total of 14,586 pupils, being 1 school to every ·17 square mile and 22·5 pupils to every thousand of the population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bombay is not so excessively hot as some other parts of India. The cold weather lasts during the time of the north-east monsoon, from November to May. The south-west monsoon begins about the second week in June, and the rain continues with great regularity until the end of September. The hottest months of the year are May and October, but even then the heat is tempered by cool breezes from the sea. The average rainfall of the year, as registered at Kolába observatory, is 70·30 inches; the average temperature, 79·2° F. The average death-rate in Bombay city during the five years ending 1874 was 23·68 per thousand. In 1875, a total of 18,295 deaths were registered, of which 834 were assigned to cholera, 5150 to fevers, and 2228 to bowel complaints; the death-rate was 28·39 per thousand. There are 5 civil hospitals in Bombay city, with an average daily number of 996·7 patients. A new building is urgently needed for the European hospital. There is a lunatic asylum at Kolába, which contained a daily average of 266·9 inmates in 1874-75, maintained at a cost to the State of £17, 6s. per head. In 1875-76, a staff of 16 vaccinators was employed in Bombay city, who performed 35,658 operations at a total cost of £1188.

Bomorí.—Town in Orchha State, Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 26′ 20″ N., long. 79° 54′ 40″ E.; on the road from Agra to Ságar (Saugor), distant from the former 180 miles south-east, from the latter 93 miles north-west. Situated on rising ground, on the bank of an extensive artificial lake, 4 miles in length and 2 in breadth, formed by damming up the course of a small stream, and largely utilized for irrigation. On a rocky ridge overlooking the lake stands the ruined palace of the Rájá who constructed it.

Bomraj (*Bomraz*).—Estate in Nellore District, Madras. Formerly, with Venkatagiri, Kálahásti, and Sayyidpúr, constituting the 'District of Western Palayams.' The peculiar revenue and stipendiary usages of this

estate form a marked contrast to those in the neighbouring tracts under British administration.

Bonái.—The most southerly of the Tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, lying between 21° 35′ 30″ and 22° 7′ 45″ N. lat., and between 84° 31′ 5″ and 85° 25′ E. long.; area, 1297 square miles; population in 1872, 24,832. Bounded on the north by part of Singbhúm District and by Gángpur State; on the south and west by Bámra, a feudatory State of the Central Provinces; and on the east by Keunjhar State, Orissa.

Physical Aspects.—The State is shut in on all sides by the lofty BONAI HILLS, which occupy so large a portion of the country that only one-twelfth of the entire area is under cultivation. The Bráhmaní, the only river in Bonái, flows from north to south, forming in the centre of the State a fertile and comparatively level tract, in which most of the largest villages are situated. To reach this central valley it passes in a succession of rapids through a beautiful glen 8 miles long. The river presents no difficulties to the floating down of timber; and it seems probable that the valuable stores of *sál* which the State contains will eventually be sent to False Point by this route. Wild animals—tigers, leopards, wolves, elephants, bison, etc.—are very numerous, and do much damage to the crops.

History, etc.—Bonái, together with Gángpur and others of the Chutiá Nágpur States, was ceded to the British Government in 1803, and restored by a special engagement in 1806. It reverted to the British under a provisional agreement made with Madhojí Bhonslá (Appá Sáhib) in 1818, and was finally ceded in 1826. Besides paying a yearly tribute of £20, the Rájá is bound to furnish, when required, a contingent of armed men for military service. The State yields the Rájá an income of about £600.

Population.—Of the population of 24,832 in 1872, 10,416 (42 per cent.) were Hindus, and 32 Muhammadans, while 14,384 (or 57·9 per cent. of the population) were hill tribes belonging to other religions not separately classified. Number of males, 12,645—females, 12,187. Average density of population, 19 per square mile; number of villages, 234; number of houses, 4707; villages per square mile, ·18; houses per square mile, 4; persons per village, 106; persons per house, 5·3. The ethnical classification of the population is as follows:—Pure aborigines (Dravidian and Kolarian), 14,384, or 57·9 per cent. of the total population; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 3653; Hindus, 6763; Muhammadans, 32. Of the Dravidian aborigines, the most numerous are the Bhuiyás, of whom there are 5760; the Gonds, also a Dravidian tribe, number 2809. The Kalitas, or Kultas, of whom there are 724, are the most noteworthy caste among the Hindus. An account of these, and other tribes and castes found in the State, will be found in the *Statistical*

Account of Bengal, vol. xvii. pp. 169-174. The principal village is BONAI GARH (*q.v.*), the residence of the Rájá.

Agriculture.—The principal crops in the State are rice, pulses, and oil-seeds. Systematic cultivation is confined to the valley of the Bráhmaní river, and, as has been already stated, only one-twelfth of the entire area is under tillage. Three regular rice crops are grown—*gorá dhán*, a highland rice, sown in June and reaped in September; autumn rice, also sown in June; and a winter crop, sown in July. *Gorá dhán* yields in good seasons 13 or 14 *maunds* of paddy for every *maund* of seed sown; but in bad years, or under careless tillage, the out-turn is not more than four or five fold the amount of seed. A fourth rice crop, called *dáhi dhán*, is grown on forest land by the nomadic hill tribes. For this no ploughing is required; the trees are cut down and burned on the land, the ashes being mixed up with the surface soil; and the seed is put in at the commencement of the rains. The out-turn of the *dáhi* crop is from 40 to 45 times the amount of the seed, but after two years the land is exhausted. Wages in Bonái are invariably paid in kind; a male day-labourer receives 2 *sers* (4 lbs.) of rice a day, and a woman, 1½ *ser* (3 lbs.). Price of best cleaned rice in 1873, 4s. 2d. per cwt.; of common rice, 2s. 1d.; and of coarse unhusked paddy, 1s. 0½d. per cwt.

Trade, etc.—Small boats ply on the Bráhmaní all the year round, and the bulk of the surplus produce of the country is exported to Sambalpur by this route. A portion, however, is carried to the north on pack-bullocks. Iron is smelted for local use, but is not exported. Gold is found in small quantities in the bed of the Bráhmaní and the hill streams.

Bonái Garh.—Residence of the Rájá of Bonái State, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. Lat. 21° 49′ 8″ N., long. 85° 0′ 20″ E.; situated on the Bráhmaní river, which surrounds the *garh* or fort on three sides. It is further defended by a high mud-wall and moat. Within this enclosure are about 150 houses, including the palace of the chief, his court-house and jail. The entire village contains about 300 houses. The site, which is very picturesque, is 505 feet above sea level.

Bonái Hills.—A series of ranges, rising to a height of 2000 and 3000 feet above the central valley of Bonái State, Chutiá Nágpur, and shutting it in on all sides. With the countless spurs which they throw off, they occupy a large portion of the State. Most of the hills are densely wooded to the summit, and, except at the regular passes, are inaccessible to beasts of burden. Through the northern mountain barrier separating Bonái from Gángpur State, the Bráhmaní river has forced its way, passing through a glen 8 miles long. The shortest route from Gángpur to Bonái is by a rugged path through this glen, but it is only practicable during the dry weather. Principal peaks—Mánkar-

náchá, 3639 feet above sea level; Bádámgarh, 3525 feet; Kumritár, 3490 feet; Cheliátoka, 3308 feet; and Kondádhar, 3000 feet. Fifteen other peaks are named, each more than 2000 feet in height.

Bondada.—Estate in Godávari District, Madras; paying (with Atsanta) £7399 per annum as Government assessment.

Bonrá.—Marsh in Bográ District, Bengal; locally known as the *bará bíl*, or Great Swamp. It is connected with the CHALAN LAKE, in Rájsháhí, one of the largest pieces of water of this kind in Bengal.

Boodoung.—Revenue Circle, Akyab District.—*See* BUDOUNG.

Boondee.—Native State and town in Rájputána.—*See* BUNDI.

Borágárí.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 0′ 15″ N., long. 89° 3′ 15″ E. Chief exports—rice, mustard, jute, and gunny bags.

Borám.—Village in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 22′ N., long. 86° 10′ E. Chiefly noteworthy on account of the Jain remains in the neighbourhood, on the right bank of the Kásái river, 4 miles south of the town of Jáipur. There are many indications that these remains mark the site of what was at one time a very important place. Amidst heaps of *débris* and ruins stand three fine brick temples, of which the most southerly is the largest. Its tower rises from a base of 26 feet square to a height of (at present) about 60 feet; but the upper portion has fallen, and it is impossible to say what height it originally attained. The chamber occupies only 9 square feet; the images have been removed. The bricks of which all the temples are made are beautifully fashioned.

Borásámsar.—Chiefship formerly belonging to the Eighteen Garhjáts, but now attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; situated between 20° 43′ 15″ and 21° 11′ 45″ N. lat., and between 82° 40′ 30″ and 83° 27′ 45″ E. long. Area, about 800 square miles, nearly half of which is cultivated, the rest being covered by jungle. The forests contain abundance of *sál* (Shorea robusta), *sáj* (Pentaptera glabra), and other useful timber, besides lac, and cocoons of the *tasar* silkworm. Wild beasts are very numerous.

Bor Ghát.—Pass across the Western Gháts, 40 miles south-east of Bombay, and about the same distance north-west of Poona. Lat. 18° 46′ 45″ N., long. 73° 23′ 30″ E. The carrying of the line of railway up this pass is one of the greatest engineering feats that has been performed in India. The summit is 1798 feet above sea level. In former times, the Bor Ghát was considered the key of the Deccan.

Borí.—Thriving town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; on the left bank of the Waná, lying between the Great Southern Road and the railway, about 18 miles from Nágpur. Lat. 20° 54′ 45″ N., long. 79° 2′ 45″ E.; pop. (1870), 3371, employed in agriculture, or in weaving cloth dyed of a red brick colour. In consequence

of the durability of the dye, which is ascribed to some property in the waters of the Waná, the cloths of Borí command a high price. The town has a commodious *sarái*, lately built near the railway station, and a good bungalow (rest-house) on the Great Southern Road; also a Government school. Some fine groves adorn the northern quarters. Mainá Bái Nimbálkarín, with a garrison of 200 men, successfully held Borí against three raids of the Pindáris.

Boria.—Seaport in Ratnágiri District, Bombay. Lat. 17° 24′ N., long. 73° 13′ 15″ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £1543; imports, £3045.

Borsad.—Chief town of the Borsad Subdivision of Káira District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 24′ 30″ N., long. 72° 56′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 12,214. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Botád.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 22° 10′ N., long. 71° 42′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 7157.

Bowring-Pet (or *Maramatlu*).—Municipal village in Kolár District, Mysore; 10 miles by road south of Kolár. Lat. 12° 59′ N., long. 78° 15′ E.; pop. (1871), 1227; municipal revenue (1874-75), £36; rate of taxation, 7d. per head. Founded in 1864, on the opening of the railway, and named after Mr. Lewin Bowring, then Chief Commissioner. Includes the former villages of Maramatlu and Hosingere. Railway station for Kolár or Kolár Road, and headquarters of the Betmangala *táluk*. Weekly fair attended by 1000 persons.

Brahmagiri (or *Marenád*).—Range of hills forming the southern section of the chain of the Western Gháts, which constitutes a natural barrier for several miles between Coorg and the Wynád *táluk* in the Madras District of Malabar; average height, 4500 feet above the sea. Highest peak—Davasi-betta, 5276 feet. Lat. 11° 56′ N., long. 76° 2′ E. The sides are clothed with heavy forest, and in some places with coffee plantations. Among these hills are the sources of the Káveri (Cauvery) and the Lakshmantirtha rivers, which flow towards the east; while on the precipitous western face, the Barapol and other cataracts leap down to the sea.

Bráhmanábád.—Ruined city in Haidarábád District, Sind. It stood on the old course of the Indus, and was strongly fortified. Outlying suburbs formerly connected it with the cities of Depur and Dalári,—the former the royal, the latter the official, quarter; Bráhmanábád itself being the commercial centre. The ruins of its fortifications measure 4 miles in circumference. Recent excavations prove that the inhabitants had attained to great skill in the arts, for the sculptures, engraved gems, carved ivory, earthenware, and coloured glass, found among the ruins, show both advanced taste and workmanship; while the arrangement and regularity of the streets, and the solid proportions of the buildings, attest great architectural excellence. Legends say that the

city was founded prior to the 7th century, and was destroyed by the gods in punishment for the iniquities of 'King Dolora.' History so far confirms this tradition as to make mention of an unjust ruler, by name Dolora Amráni, in the 11th century. That the destruction of the city was as sudden as it was complete, is proved by the discovery of whole households overwhelmed together, men and women at their work, and cattle in their stalls. No marks of conflagration are discernible, nor—since household goods and valuables remain *in situ*—can the ruin of the city be referred to the invasion of an enemy, or desertion by the inhabitants. The legend, therefore, is probably so far correct, that Bráhmanábád was destroyed by natural agency—most probably by the earthquake which about the same date diverted the course of the Indus.

Bráhmanbáriá.—Subdivision of Tipperah District, Bengal, lying between 23° 35′ 45″ and 24° 16′ 30″ N. lat., and between 90° 45′ 45″ and 91° 22′ 15″ E. long. Pop. (1872), 447,282, of whom 208,519, or 46·6 per cent., are Hindus, and 238,763, or 53·4 per cent., Muhammadans; number of villages, 1201; number of houses, 87,140; persons per village, 372; persons per house, 5·1. The Subdivision was formed in 1860, and consists of the three *tháńás* (police circles) of Kasbá, Gauripurá, and Bráhmanbáriá. In 1870-71, it contained 2 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 102 officers and men, and a village watch of 946 men. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year was returned at £1310.

Bráhmanbáriá.—Municipal town and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, in Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Titás river. Lat. 23° 58′ N., long. 91° 9′ E.; pop. (1872), 12,364, of whom 8895, or 72 per cent., are Hindus, and 3469 Muhammadans; number of males, 6328—females, 6036; municipal income in 1873-74, £458; incidence of municipal taxation, 8⅞d. per head of population within municipal limits. Considerable trade in rice; lock-up and dispensary.

Bráhmaní.—River of Bengal, formed by the junction of the South Koel and the Sánkh rivers. These rivers meet in Gángpur State, Chutiá Nágpur; and the united stream, assuming the name of Bráhmaní, passes through Bonái State, Chutiá Nágpur, and the Orissa Tributary States of Tálcher and Dhenkánal, and enters Cuttack District near Garh Balrámpur. It then follows a very winding course from west to east, and reaches the Bay of Bengal by two mouths, the Dhámrá estuary and the Maipára river, in 20° 46′ 45″ N. lat., and 86° 58′ 30″ E. long. The principal branch of the Bráhmaní on its right bank in Cuttack District is the Kimiriá, which takes off opposite Rájendrápur village, and, after mixing its waters with the Genguti, Kelo, and Birúpá, falls again into the parent stream at Inápur. As it approaches the

sea, the Bráhmaní receives as a tributary the KHARSUA, and a short distance above this point its waters unite with those of the BAITARANI, forming the DHAMRA. The confluence of the South Koel and the Sánkh—*i.e.*, the point of origin of the Bráhmaní—is the prettiest spot in Gángpur State, and is said by local tradition to be the scene of the amour of the sage Parásara with the fisherman's daughter, Matsya Gandhá, who became the mother of Vyása, the reputed compiler of the Vedas and the Mahábhárata.

Brahmapurí.—Subdivision or *tahsíl* in Chánda District, Central Provinces, lying between 19° and 20° 44′ 15″ N. lat., and between 79° 27′ and 80° 24′ E. long. Pop. (1872), 229,362; number of villages or townships, 1153; houses, 44,587; area, 3321 square miles; land revenue, £8726; total revenue, £9273.

Brahmaputra (lit. '*The son of Brahma or God*').—River of North-Eastern India, which for size and utility to man ranks among the most important in the world. The term Brahmaputra has been borrowed by geographers from the Hindu name of that section of the river which waters the valley of Assam. To the Assamese it is known as the Haraniya. The total length is estimated at about 1800 miles, with a drainage basin of 361,200 square miles. The volume of water discharged at Goálpára during the lowest ebb has been computed at 146,188 cubic feet per second. During the rains, when the stream rises 30 or 40 feet above its ordinary level, the discharge may fairly be estimated at four times the above quantity.

The actual course of the Brahmaputra before it reaches British territory has not been satisfactorily determined, and yet awaits the enterprise of a European explorer. The main stream in the Assam valley is made up by the confluence of three swift rivers, the Dibang, Dihang, and Brahmaputra proper, in 27° 70′ N. lat. and 95° 50′ E. long. Each of these brings down a large volume of water, and the two latter are supposed to penetrate the Himálayas by a rocky gorge. The Brahmaputra proper, though apparently the smallest of the three, has been selected by Hindu tradition as the head-waters of the sacred river. Just below the rapids which it forms on debouching from the mountains, there is a large and deep pool called the Brahmakund, the resort of pilgrims from the farthest corners of the peninsula. Of the remaining contributories by far the most important is the Dihang, which is now generally identified with the Sangpu or great river of Thibet. The Sangpu, or Narichu Sangpu, is known to rise on the farther side of the Himálayas, in about 31° N. lat. and 83° E. long., not far from the sources of the Indus and the Sutlej (Satlaj); thence it flows in an easterly direction through the whole length of Thibet, passing near the capital of Lhásá. The greater portion of its course has been explored; but an absolute blank in our information meets us when we attempt to follow it through

the eastern hill barrier of Thibet. It is, however, now agreed that the Sangpu is identical with the Dihang. D'Anville, Dalrymple, and certain French geographers were rather disposed to regard it as the upper channel of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Our ignorance of the geography of this interesting region may be assigned to a combination of causes. It is inhabited by savage tribes, who are sufficiently under the influence of Thibet to resent all advances on the part of Europeans, and have ere now murdered adventurous travellers. It is also an extremely difficult country to traverse, being obstructed by rocky precipices and narrow chasms, where none but the practised mountaineer could make his way. There is little hope of a trade route in this direction between India and China.

On entering the valley of Assam, the united stream of the Brahmaputra at once assumes the characteristics by which it is commonly known. It rolls along through the plain with a vast expanse of water, broken by innumerable islands, and exhibiting the operations of alluvion and diluvion on a gigantic scale. On either side it throws out large branches, which only rejoin the main channel after a circuit of many miles. As is the case generally with rivers that issue from mountains and run through low-lying plains, its bed has been raised by successive deposits of silt to a higher level than that of the surrounding country. Beneath each of its banks lies a strip of marshy land which is flooded every rainy season; and at the distance of about 6 miles the ground begins to rise towards the hills that hem in the valley on both sides. The general direction of this portion of its course is from north-east to south-south-west for about 450 miles; but on leaving Assam, near Dhubri, it turns sharply due south, sweeping round the spurs of the Gáro Hills, which form, as it were, the outwork of the watershed separating the Brahmaputra from the river system of the Barák. This southerly course it continues for about 180 miles through the open plain of Eastern Bengal, as far as its confluence with the Padma, or main stream of the Ganges, at Goálanda. From this point the conjoint delta of these two great rivers may be said to commence. The great bulk of the waters of the Brahmaputra flow towards the south-west, and ultimately reach the sea by the broad estuary known as the Meghná. Shortly after leaving Assam, what is now the chief channel of the Brahmaputra takes the name of the Jamuná—an alteration of name representing a mighty change which has taken place in the course of the river within the last hundred years. The old bed, the only one recognised by Major Rennel in 1765, lies farther to the east, and still brings down a portion of the stream—retaining the original name—past the civil station of Maimansinh District, to reunite with the larger body of water by means of the Meghná. In fact, the entire lower portion of the Brahmaputra may be described as an elaborate network of inter-

lacing channels, many of which run dry in the cold season, but one or other is filled to overflowing during the annual period of inundation. No large towns are situated on its banks; the chief marts of river trade are enumerated below. The following is a list of the more important tributaries, proceeding down stream, and excluding the three which have already been mentioned as making up the main river:—The SUBANSIRI, BHOROLI, MANAS, GADADHAR, or SANKOS, DHARLA, and TISTA, on the right bank; and the NOA DIHING, BURI DIHING, DISANG, DHANSIRI, and KAPILI, on the left. All these are navigable by country boats of the largest size, and many of them are open to steamers during the rainy season. The Brahmaputra forms many islands during its course. Some of these are mere sandbanks, deposited during one rainy season only to be swept away by the inundation of the following year. Of those properly called islands, the largest is the Májuli *char*, within the Assam District of Síbságar, which is supposed to have been formed out of the silt washed down by the Subansiri or Lohit. It covers an area of 282,165 acres, or 441 square miles.

In its agricultural and commercial utility, the Brahmaputra ranks next after the Ganges and the Indus among the rivers of India. Unlike these two rivers, its waters are not used for the purpose of artificial irrigation, nor are they anywhere confined within embankments. The natural overflow of the periodic inundation is sufficient to supply a soil which usually receives a heavy rainfall; and this natural overflow is allowed to find its own lines of drainage. The whole surface of the country is thus annually replenished by a fresh deposit of slime, superseding the necessity of any top-dressing from the hand of man. The plains of Eastern Bengal watered by the Brahmaputra yield abundant crops of rice, jute, and mustard year after year, without undergoing any visible exhaustion; and the valley of Assam is not less fertile, though inhabited by a less industrious race. In a region thus left at the mercy of fluvial action, the construction of roads is almost impracticable, and rivers are the sole channels of communication. The Brahmaputra is navigable by steamers as high up as Dibrugarh, about 800 miles from the sea; and, in addition, its broad surface is crowded with country craft of all sizes and rigs, with dug-out canoes and with timber-rafts. The largest emporium on its banks is SIRAJGANJ, in the Bengal District of Pábná, where the agricultural produce of all the surrounding country is collected for transmission to Calcutta. The downward traffic consists chiefly of—tea, timber, oil-seeds, caoutchouc, and raw cotton from Assam; and jute, oil-seeds, tobacco, rice, and other food grains from Eastern Bengal. The imports up-stream are—European cotton goods, salt, and hardware consigned to Sirájganj; and also rice, tea-seed, liquors, etc., for Assam. The India General Steam Navigation Company runs a line of steamers from Calcutta up to Dibrugarh all the

year through, the time occupied on the voyage varying from twenty to twenty-five days, according to the season. The current is so strong at certain places that the vessels are sometimes unable to make headway, and have to lie to for days. The following are the principal stopping stations, commencing from above Dibrugarh:—Behāli-mukh, Jhánsi-mukh, Rohmári, Dibrugarh, Dihing-mukh, Dishang-mukh, Dikhu-mukh, Kokilá-mukh, Nigri-ting, Dhansiri-mukh, Biswanáth, Kaliábar, Tezpur, Mangaldái, Gauháti, Goálpára, and Dhubrí, in Assam; Kálíganj, Sirájganj, Madáripur, and Nalchiti, in Bengal. During the year 1876-77 the steamers brought down from Assam, excluding Cáchár and Sylhet, 14,357,600 lbs. of tea, valued at nearly 1½ million sterling. In the same year the total number of country boats passing the registration station at Sirájganj was 49,644. At the present time (1878), a proposal is under the consideration of Government for establishing a subsidized line of express steamers on the Brahmaputra, in order to bring the remote Province of Assam into closer connection with Calcutta. It is estimated that the voyage down stream from Dibrugarh to Goálanda, the terminus of the Eastern Bengal Railway, might be accomplished in three and a half days, and the return voyage up stream in five days.

Bramanakraka.—Village in Nellore District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 2084. Up to 1790 it gave its name to a *táluk* of the District.

Brindaban.—Ancient town and municipality in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 23′ 20″ N., long. 77° 44′ 10″ E.; area, 275 acres; pop. (1872), 20,350, consisting of 19,514 Hindus, and 836 Musalmáns. Lies on the right bank of the Jumna, in a peninsula formed by a northward bend of the river, 6 miles north of Muttra. Brindaban ranks amongst the holiest cities of the Hindus, and contains a large number of temples, shrines, and sacred sites. Among the most noticeable may be mentioned the temple of Gobind Deva, erected in 1590 by Rájá Mán Sinh of Ambar, governor of Kábul and Behar under Akbar, which was originally capped with seven towers, all now destroyed; the temple of Madan Mohan, a form of Krishna, on the river bank, at the upper end of the town; that of Gopináth, built by Ráesil Ji about 1580; and the great temple of the Seths, dedicated to Rang-Ji, and constructed between 1845 and 1851 at a cost of 25 *lákhs* of rupees (say, £250,000). Handsome *gháts* or flights of stone bathing steps line the bank of the Jumna; and above, the temples and houses rise picturesquely with decorated façades. The Kúshal-bagh, a garden surrounded with a masonry wall, contains long aqueducts for the water supply of the town. Ahaliya Bái, the Marhattá queen of Indore, built a large well of red sandstone, with 57 steps leading down to the water's edge. Two other tanks, known as the Brahma Kúnd and the Govind Kund, possess great sanctity for Hindus. Many private houses are built of hewn sandstone. Anglo-vernacular school, and dis-

pensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2432; from taxes, £1929, or 1s. 11⅛d per head of population (21,004) within municipal limits.

Broach (*Bharuch*).—A British District in Bombay, lying between 21° 26′ and 22° 17′ N. lat., and between 72° 32′ and 73° 11′ E. long.; area, 1458 square miles; population according to the Census of 1872, 350,322.

Physical Features.—The District forms an alluvial plain 54 miles in length, sloping gently westwards to the shores of the Gulf of Cambay (Khambhái), and varying in breadth from 20 to 40 miles. With the exception of a few hillocks of sand-drift along the line of coast, and some mounds in the neighbourhood of Broach city, the level of the plain is unbroken by any rising ground. The Máhi and Kim—the former a river of 300 miles in length, with a drainage area estimated at from 15,000 to 17,000 square miles, and the latter with a course of 70 miles and a drainage area of about 700 square miles—form respectively the northern and southern boundaries of the District. Between these limits two rivers discharge their waters through the Broach plain—the Dhádhar about 20 miles south of the Máhi, and the Narbadá (Nerbudda) between the Dhádhar and the Kim. The Dhádhar for 24 miles, or about one-third of the entire length of its course, passes through the Broach plain; and the Narbadá, with a total length of between 700 and 800 miles, and a drainage area estimated at about 36,400 square miles, flows for the last 70 miles of its course through the District of Broach, gradually widening into an estuary, whose shores when they fall away into the Gulf of Cambay are more than 13 miles apart. The water of these rivers is not made use of for irrigation; and though each has a tidal estuary extending for several miles inland, none of them, except the Narbadá, and for a short distance the Dhádhar, is serviceable for purposes of navigation. Owing to the height of the banks of its rivers, the District is for drainage purposes to a great extent dependent on creeks or backwaters running inland, either directly from the coast line or from the banks of rivers at points in their course below the limit of tidal influence.

The surface of the plain consists, over almost its entire area, of black cotton soil, highly fertile and well cultivated. This black soil covers deposits of brown clay, containing nodular limestone above and gravel and sand underneath. Within 30 miles of the coast hardly any rocks are to be seen. Farther inland the gravels and clays of the nummulitic series begin to appear, and in the south of the District trap crops out. Conglomerate and limestone are also found in this tract, but otherwise the plain of Broach contains no minerals. Except for a tract of waste land 161 acres in extent, lately set apart for the growth of *bábul* trees (Acacia), the District is without forests; and only in the few villages where the lighter varieties of soil are found is the plain

well covered with trees. On an island in the Narbadá (Nerbudda), about 12 miles above Broach, is a famous *banian* or *bar* (Ficus Indica) tree, known as the *Kabír bar*, because, as the story goes, it sprang from a twig which the sage Kabir once used for cleaning his teeth. About the year 1780, this tree is said to have had 350 large and over 3000 small stems, the principal of which enclosed a space nearly 2000 feet in circumference. Since then it has suffered much from age and floods, and is now (1876) little more than a ruin.

The domestic animals are cows, buffaloes, oxen, camels, horses, asses, sheep, and goats. The cattle of the District are of two breeds—the small indigenous bullock and the large ox of Northern Guzerat. The smaller breed of bullocks, which are generally driven in riding carts, are worth from £6 to £12 a pair; the larger sort, used for ploughing, are worth from £15 to £20. Well-to-do cultivators pay much attention to the appearance and condition of their bullocks. Cultivation is too general to allow much scope for wild animals. The hog, wolf, and antelope almost exhaust the list. Of birds, the chief are the florican, sand grouse, partridge, quail, duck, snipe, and crane. The District is well supplied with fish—fresh-water, salt-water, and migratory.

Population.—The earliest year for which an estimate of the population is available is 1820, when the number of inhabitants was returned at 229,527, or 173 to the square mile. In 1851, the number was 290,984, or 200 to the square mile. The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 350,322 persons,or 257·97 to the square mile. Of these, 277,032, or 79·07 per cent., including 3986 Sráwaks or Jains, were Hindus; 69,033, or 19·7 per cent., Musalmáns; 3116, or 0·88 per cent., Pársís; 86 Christians; 8 Jews; 15 Síkhs; and 1032 'others.' The percentage of males in the total population was 52·1.

Under the term Hindu are included three chief subdivisions—(1) the lower classes, the Bhangiá, Dhedá, and Khálpá; (2) the aboriginal tribes, Kolí, Taláviá, Talwádá, and Bhil; and (3) the middle and upper classes, including those that follow the Jain religion. The practice of separating into small bodies has in Broach been carried so far that, in a Hindu population of 277,032 souls, there are representatives of 142 distinct castes. Again, owing to social disputes, or simply because some of their members have settled in different parts of the Province, these 142 main castes have become split up into numerous subdivisions, in many instances almost undistinguished in their customs and way of living, though their social intercourse is confined within narrow limits. Among Musalmáns there are two classes distinct in origin, though now considerably mixed by intermarriage—Muhammadan immigrants, and converts to Islám. The first group comprises four classes, Sayyid, Mughal, Pathán, and Shaikh, with a total population of 4455 persons. Under the second group come the Borahs (Voharás), with a

strength of 30,825; the Memons, with a total of 140; and the Khojás, numbering only three. For other classes of converted Hindus—the Molesaláms (formerly Rájputs), the Máleks, the Momnás, and the Shekdás—no separate figures are available. With the exception of the Borahs, who are a well-to-do body, the Broach Musalmáns are for the most part in a depressed condition. The chief agricultural classes are Borahs of the Sunni sect, Kanbí, Rájput, and Kolí; the trading classes are Banias (Sráwaks) or Jains, Borahs of the Shiá sect, and Pársís. The cultivating Borahs are a hard-working and intelligent but somewhat turbulent body of men. In language and habits they resemble the Kanbí and other Hindus, but are distinguishable by their beard as well as by a peculiar cast of countenance. While professing the faith of Islám, they do not intermarry with other Musalmáns. The Kanbís, as peaceable as they are industrious, form the most respectable part of the rural population; they are well acquainted with the qualities and powers of all varieties of the soil. The Rájputs afford an instance of a complete change from the fierceness and turbulence of a martial class, to the quietness, obedience, and industry of tillers of the soil. The Kolís, who stand lower in the social scale than the Kanbís, formerly bore a bad reputation, but now they are for the most part a reformed race. In many villages they are as steady and hard-working cultivators as any in the District. A few Pársís are engaged in agriculture, and are said to be active and skilful husbandmen. Most of the members of this class deal in merchandize, and together with the Sráwaks form the two most wealthy sections of the trading community.

Of the whole population, 67,395 persons, or 19·24 per cent., live in towns containing more than 5000 inhabitants. Originally the towns were walled, and each was provided with its own fort. Within the circuit of the walls lived the richest part of the people, dwelling in well-built houses; without were the poorer classes, lodged chiefly in hovels. Though the fortifications have now been allowed to fall into decay, a marked distinction still remains between the town proper and its suburbs. The villages have in general a thriving appearance, arising from the common use of tiles for the houses instead of thatch; and the trees with which the villages are surrounded contribute to give a pleasing effect. The respectable inhabitants have their houses together in courts or closes, with an entrance common to all the families who belong to the same close, which is shut at night for the protection of the cattle. Formerly many of the villages were surrounded by walls of mud or burnt bricks as a shelter against the attacks of freebooters, but now only a single village remains walled, and its fortifications are said in many places to be broken down. Exclusive of 10 hamlets, there were, in 1872, 405 inhabited State and alienated villages, giving an

average of 0·29 village to each square mile, and 864·99 inhabitants to each village.

In 1872, the total number of houses was 96,723, or an average of 71·21 per square mile. Of these, 26,947 (inhabited by 98,139 persons, or 28·01 per cent. of the entire population) were built of stone or fire-baked brick, and roofed with tile. The remaining 69,776 houses, accommodating 252,183 persons, or 71·99 per cent., had outer walls of mud or sun-dried brick, and thatched roofs. A well-to-do trader's house generally contains furniture worth altogether about £47. Of this amount, cots, cupboards, couches, boxes, carpets, quilts, and mattresses represent about £27, and cooking pots about £20. A well-to-do cultivator owns one or two strong wooden boxes, wooden bedsteads and flock coverlets, worth altogether about £14, besides cooking pots worth £10. An artisan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, two or three beds, cooking and drinking pots, worth altogether about £2, 8s. A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars and one or two mattresses, worth about a shilling or two.

The trade guilds of Broach include the leading capitalists of the city, the bankers and money-changers, cotton dealers, agents, and those engaged in the business of insurance; other unions represent the smaller trades, and are conducted on the *pancháyat* system so common throughout India. Details of the constitution and objects of these associations are given in the article on the District of AHMEDABAD, where the system is more fully developed than in Broach. One of the main sources of revenue of the chief guild of Broach city is a tax of from 6d. to 1s. per bale levied by the managers on cotton. Except in the case of cotton bills, there is also a charge of ¾d. on every bill of exchange negotiated. The receipts from these taxes are applied to Hindu objects of charity and religion. The chief institution maintained is the hospital (*pánjrápol*) for old and sick animals, supported at a yearly cost of £530. In addition to fees and fines levied upon members for breaches of trade rules, some of the guilds adopt special means of collecting funds. Money-changers, grain-dealers, grocers, and tobacco merchants, make the observance of their trade holidays — the 2d, the 11th, and the last day of each fortnight—a source of revenue to the general body. On the occasion of these holidays, only one shop is allowed to remain open in each market. The right to open this shop is put up to auction, and the amount of the bid is kept for caste purposes. Similarly the bankers, cotton dealers, insurers, and bricklayers have for trade purposes imposed a tax on the members of their craft or calling. In the case of other classes, the necessary sums are collected by subscription among the members of the caste.

At the time of the introduction of British rule (1803) there was in many

villages an association of members of the proprietary body, by which the amount of the State demand was distributed according to a fixed proportion among the members. The peculiarities of this joint and sharehold tenure (*bhágdári*) have to some extent disappeared before the system of collecting the revenue direct from the different shareholders; but in most places the village organization still remains tolerably complete. The staff of village servants includes as a rule the head-man, *pátel*; the clerk, *taláti*; the family priest, *ghámot*; the potter, *kumbhár*; the barber, *hajjám*; the carpenter, *suthár*; the blacksmith, *lohár*; the tailor, *darzí*; the shoemaker, *muchí*; the washerman, *dhobí*; the tanner, *khálpo*; the sweeper, *dhedo*; the scavenger, *bhangio*; the watchman, *wartanio* or *rakho*. Besides this establishment, in some villages are to be found the water-drawer, *kosio*; the water-seller, *parabio*; goldsmith, *soní*; singer, *bárot* or *bhát*; teacher, *akhum*; physician, *baid*; astronomer, *joshí*; strolling players, *bhaváyá*; Hindu devotees, *gosáin* or *bairágí*; and Musalmán devotees, *fakír*. The head-men retain to the present day much of their former influence. They are in many cases rich, and possess a strong hold over the villagers by reason of their business as money-lenders.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of lands belonging to other territory situated within its limits, Broach contains a total area of 933,764 acres, of which 690,208 acres are arable assessed land, and 243,556 acres are waste. Of the arable land, 193,886 acres, or 28·09 per cent., have been alienated. The land is for agricultural purposes divided into two main classes, light soils and black soils; the former compose about one-fourth, and the latter three-fourths of the entire area. There is also a rich alluvial deposit known as *bháthá*, in which products of all kinds, especially tobacco and castor-oil plants, are raised. The holders of land belong to two classes—proprietors of large estates or *thákurs*, and peasant proprietors or *rayats*. Of the total assessed area, 47,017 acres, or 6·81 per cent., are in the possession of men belonging to the landlord class, who are the heirs of old Rájput families. A peasant proprietor is either a member of a cultivating community, or an independent holder with an individual interest in the land he tills. Of the whole number of villages in the District, the lands of 244, or 59·51 per cent., were in 1862 held by corporations of shareholders, and the remaining 166 villages, or 40·49 per cent., by individual cultivators. Of the whole area of the Government land, 457,806 acres, or 92·24 per cent., are held under the ordinary survey tenure for a term of 30 years, at rates subject to revision and increase. The land alienated by the State is held at a fixed quit-rent.

There are two harvests in the year, (1) the early or *kharíf*, and (2) the late or *rabí*. The early crops are sown in June, and, except cotton, which is seldom ready for picking before February, are harvested in October

and November. The late crops are sown in October, and reaped in February. A field of black soil requires only one ploughing, and is seldom manured. Light soils, on the other hand, are ploughed three or four times, and are generally manured. The entire set of implements used on a farm may be valued at from £1, 10s. to £2. The agricultural stock in the possession of the cultivators of State or *khálsá* villages in 1874-75 numbered 27,192 ploughs, 20,081 carts, 67,570 bullocks, 58,442 buffaloes, 15,789 cows, 3211 horses, 33,276 sheep and goats, and 1809 asses. Of 457,806 acres of Government land cultivated in the year 1873-74, 63,606 acres, or 13·89 per cent., were fallow or under grass. Of the 394,200 acres under actual cultivation, grain crops occupied 170,060 acres, or 43·14 per cent.; pulses, 35,780 acres, or 9·07 per cent.; oil-seeds, 936 acres, or ·22 per cent.; cotton, 176,261 acres, or 44·71 per cent.; miscellaneous crops, 11,434 acres, or 2·9 per cent. Since the year 1812, attempts have from time to time been made to improve the cultivation and preparation of cotton. So far, the result has been to show that foreign varieties will not thrive in the District. In the matter of ginning considerable changes have been made. By the introduction of the Platt Macarthy Rolley Gin in 1864, the old native hand-cleaner (*charko*) has been entirely supplanted.

The years 1630, 1631, and 1755 are said to have been seasons of scarcity in which, owing to the failure of crops, remissions of revenue were granted. In 1760, 1761, 1773, 1786, and 1787, portions of the District verged so closely upon famine that the revenue had to be very largely remitted. The great famine of 1790 was caused by the entire failure of the ordinary rainfall. Since the beginning of the present century, six years of scarcity, amounting almost to famine, are recorded. The year 1819 was marked by excessive rainfall, and 1838, 1840, and 1868 by total or partial failure of rain. In 1812, the District suffered from the ravages of locusts, and in 1835 from frost. Years of partial drought have also been numerous. The cotton crop in all seasons is liable to be injured by the boll-worm.

Communications and Trade.—There are 13 lines of road, extending over a total distance of 143½ miles. Till within the last fifteen years, the highway of the trade of the District, as well as of the trade of a large section of Guzerat and Western Málwá, passed through the ports of Broach and Tankári down the estuaries of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Dhádhar. Since the opening of the railway, the trade by sea has greatly fallen off. It is still, however, large enough to support a fleet of small coasting vessels, and occasionally attracts into the Narbadá foreign ships of large size. Strictly speaking, there are no harbours along the coast line of the District. The estuaries of the rivers offer shelter to coasting vessels during the stormy months of the monsoon. In 1820, there were five sea-ports (*bandar*), viz. Degam, Tankári, Ghandhar, Dehej, and Broach. Of

these, only two, BROACH and TANKARI, are still seats of trade. During the ten years ending 1847, the average total value of both imports and exports was £1,150,091. From 1856 to 1862, the corresponding returns fell to £970,339. From 1865 to 1870, they amounted on an average to £634,369; while in 1874 they had fallen as low as £391,297, or about one-third of the corresponding returns twenty-five years before. In the Broach section of 28 miles of railway, the chief engineering work is the bridge over the Narbadá. This structure consists of 67 spans, or a total length of 4122 feet, with a maximum height of 120 feet from screw to rail level, the screw being 60 feet below the river bed, or 72 feet below low water in mid channel. The cost of this bridge up to 1871 has been £469,340. Since the opening of the line in 1861, the railway traffic has considerably increased, the number of passengers in 1874 being 404,017, as against 296,468 in 1868, the first year for which returns are available. During the same period, the total quantity of goods carried has risen from 53,261 to 71,584 tons. The most important branch of the Broach trade is the export of cotton. To the total of 65,348 tons, valued at £1,637,965, exported during the year 1874, cotton contributed £1,376,508, or 84·03 per cent. Of this, 20,914 tons were sent to Bombay by rail, and 3820 tons by sea. In connection with this cotton trade, 31 steam presses were employed in the District in 1874.

At present the capital by which the trade of Broach is carried on is for the most part supplied from Bombay. In 1820, the Broach dealers are said to have been representatives of mercantile houses in Bombay, Surat, and Ujjain; and now, in the majority of cases, they are agents of Bombay firms. Except in the town of Broach, where there are a few Pársís and Borahs, the capitalists are by caste almost all Banias. Carriers and other unskilled town labourers earn from 6d. to 9½d. a day; agricultural labourers, from 3d. to 4½d.; bricklayers and carpenters, from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 6d. Female labourers are paid about one-third less than males. Lads of from 12 to 15 get about two-thirds less; boys of from 10 to 13, who accompany carpenters and bricklayers, are paid about one-fifth of the ordinary rate. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1875 were, for a rupee (2s.)—wheat, 28 lbs.; rice, 20 lbs.; *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), 37 lbs.; *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), 33 lbs.; and *dál* (split peas), 29 lbs.

History.—Though the English established a Factory at Broach for trade purposes as early as 1616, it was not until after their capture of the castle of Surat in 1759 that they had any political relations with the native ruler. But soon after their accession to political power at Surat, certain questions of revenue gave rise to a dispute with the ruler of Broach, and in 1771 a force was sent from Surat against his capital. This expedition, which was not begun till

May, resulted in failure; but during the ensuing rainy season the Nawáb of Broach visited Bombay, and agreed to pay to the English a sum of £40,000. This, however, he failed to do, and in November 1772 a second expedition was sent against Broach. The city was taken with little difficulty, though with the loss of General Wedderburn, the commander of the force. The territory acquired by the capture of the city comprised 162 villages. In 1783, the country under Broach, which by treaty and conquest had by that time come to include the lands of Ankleswar, Hánsot, Dehejbára, and Amod, was by the treaty of Sálbái (Salbye) handed over to the Marhattás—the original conquest to Mahádáji Sindhia, and the new acquisitions to the Peshwá. For nineteen years these territories remained under Marhattá rule, till in 1803, in consequence of the treaty of Bassein, Sindhia's possessions in Guzerat were invaded by a British force, and the city of Broach was again taken. No further territorial changes took place till in 1817, under the terms of the treaty of Poona, three Subdivisions were added to the District. Since that date the history of Broach has been marked by only two events—in 1823, an outbreak of Kolis took place, and in 1857 a riot between the Pársis and Musalmáns.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 3 *táluks* or Subdivisions. The administration in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and three Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civil servant. For judicial purposes, the District is included within the jurisdiction of the Judge of Surat. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 5 courts. In 1874, the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts was £3332, and the amount realized from court fees and stamps, £13,222. Exclusive of 912 cases settled by the Small Cause Court, the number of cases decided was 8960. The average value of the property under litigation was £19, 5s. Twenty officers, including three Europeans, share the administration of criminal justice. In the year 1873, the total strength of the regular police force was 417 officers and men. Of these, under the District superintendent, 2 were subordinate officers, 77 inferior subordinate officers, 22 mounted constables, and 415 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £7577, 12s. These figures show 1 man to every 3·49 square miles, as compared with the area, and 1 man to every 840 persons, as compared with the population; the cost of maintenance being equal to £5, 4s. per square mile, or 5¼d. per head of population. With the exception of accommodation provided for a few under-trial prisoners at the headquarters of each Subdivision, there is no prison in the District. All prisoners are now conveyed by rail to the District jail in Surat. The District contains 9 post offices and 6 telegraph offices, one at each of the 5 stations on the railway, and a separate Government office at Broach.

The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded in 1874-75 a total of £20,672. There are two municipalities, the towns of Broach and Jambusar. The total municipal receipts in 1874 amounted to £8457; and the expenditure to £5891, the incidence of taxation being 1s. 0¼d. per head in Jambusar, and 4s. 1¾d. in Broach. In 1873-74, the whole amount of revenue raised—imperial, municipal, and local—was £284,351, or an incidence of taxation of 16s. 2¾d. per head. The land revenue alone produced £214,838.

In the year 1873-74, there were 195 Government schools, or 1 school for every 2 inhabited villages, with an average attendance of 5362 pupils, or 5·19 per cent. of the total population (103,362) between six and twenty years of age. Of the total number, 7 were girls' schools. Excluding charges for superintendence, the cost to the State amounted to £930, 14s.; in addition, £8652, 11s. was expended from local and other funds. In Broach city there is 1 library and 1 local newspaper.

There are in all 15 fairs or places of pilgrimage, of which 11 are resorted to by Hindus and 4 by Musalmáns. Shukaltirth is annually visited by about 25,000 pilgrims. At Bhádbhut and Karod, the number varies from 50,000 to 100,000. The chief towns are—(1) BROACH, with 10,443 houses and a population (1872) of 36,932; (2) JAMBUSAR, 4275 houses, pop. 14,924; (3) ANKLESWAR, 2991 houses, pop. 8865; (4) AMOD, 1812 houses, pop. 5325; and (5) HANSOT, 1322 houses, pop. 4102. The village of TANKARI was once a port of considerable trade.

Medical Aspects.—The District is as healthy as any part of Guzerat, and the climate is much more pleasant than in those parts of the Province situated farther from the sea. For a series of years ending with 1849, the average rainfall was about 33 inches; between 1852 and 1860, the average returns are 41·60 inches; from 1860 to 1870, 34 inches; 36·27 inches in 1872-73, and 35·78 in 1873-74. Frosts are said to occur at intervals of from 10 to 12 years, sometimes, as in 1835, sufficiently severe to destroy the crops. The latter days of March and the month of April are the hottest season in the year. At the end of April west and south-west winds begin to blow, and continue till October, when the rainy season closes. In the following months, slight easterly winds prevail, lasting till the end of December. There are 4 dispensaries, all established within the last five years, and one hospital at Broach city. During the year 1873-74, 20,302 persons in all were treated in these institutions, of whom 20,001 were out-door and 301 in-door patients; and in the same year 9707 persons were vaccinated. The total number of deaths registered throughout the District in the six years ending 1874 was 40,409, giving an average annual mortality of 6735, or a death-rate of 19·2 per thousand.

Broach.—Chief town of the District of the same name in Guzerat, Bombay Presidency; situated on the right bank of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, about 20 miles from its mouth. Lat. 21° 43′ 20″ N., long. 73° 2′ E.; area, including suburbs, 3⅛ square miles; number of houses, 10,443; pop. (1872), 36,932; municipal revenue (1875), £7689. Seen from the southern bank of the Narbadá, or approached by the railway bridge from the south, the massive stone wall, rising from the water's edge, and the buildings standing out from the high ground behind, give the town of Broach a marked and picturesque appearance. The fortifications, though by local tradition ascribed to Sidh Ráj of Anhilwáda (12th century), were, according to the author of the *Mirat-i-Sikandri*, built in 1526 A.D., under the orders of Sultán Bahádur, King of Ahmedábád. In the middle of the 17th century (1660), the walls are said to have been destroyed by the Emperor Aurangzeb, and about twenty-five years later to have been rebuilt by the same monarch as a protection against the attacks of the Marhattás. Of late years, the fortifications on the land side have been allowed to fall into disrepair, and in some places almost every trace of them has disappeared. On the southern side, where protection is required against the floods of the river, the city wall is kept in good order. Built of large blocks of stone, the river face of the wall, raised from 30 to 40 feet high, stretches along the bank for about a mile. It is provided with seven gates, and the top forms a broad pathway. The circuit of the wall includes an area of ⅜ths of a square mile, which in the centre rises to a height of from 60 to 80 feet above the surrounding country. This mound, from the broken bricks and other *débris* dug out of it, shows signs of being in part at least of artificial construction. At the same time, the presence of one or two small hillocks to the north of the city favours the opinion, that it may have been the rising ground on the river bank that led the early settlers to choose Broach as the site for a city. Within the walls, the streets are narrow, and in some places steep. The houses are generally two storeys high, with walls of brick and tiled roofs. In the eastern part of the town are some large family mansions said to have been built in 1790. In the suburbs the houses have a meaner appearance, many of them being not more than one storey high, with walls of wattle and daub.

The city of Broach was, according to local legend, originally founded by the sage Bhrigu, and called Bhrigupur or Bhrigú's city. In the 1st century of the Christian era, the sage's settlement had given its name—Barugaza—to a large Province, and had itself become one of the chief ports in Western India. Two hundred years later, it was the capital of a Rájput king; and in the early part of the 7th century is said by the Chinese pilgrim, Hiouen Thsang, to have contained 10 Buddhist convents, with 300 monks and 10 temples. Half a century later, Broach was a town of sufficient importance to attract some of

the earliest Musalmán expeditions against Western India. Under the Rájput dynasties of Anhilwáda (746-1300 A.D.), Broach was a flourishing seaport. During the troubles that followed the overthrow of the Anhilwáda kings, the city would seem to have changed hands on more than one occasion. But with the exception of two years (1534-36), during which it was held by the officers of the Emperor Humáyun, Broach remained (1391 to 1572) under the Musalmán dynasty of Ahmedábád. About this time, the city was twice (1536 and 1546) plundered by the Portuguese, who, except for its streets, 'so narrow most of them that two horsemen could not pass at the same time,' admired the city 'with its magnificent and lofty houses, with their costly lattices, the famous ivory and blackwood workshops, and its townsmen well skilled in mechanics—chiefly weavers, who make the finest cloth in the world' (*Decadas de Couto*, v. 325). In 1573, Broach was surrendered to the Emperor Akbar by Muzaffar Sháh III., the last of the line of Ahmedábád kings. Ten years later, Muzaffar Sháh recovered the city, but held it only for a few months, when it again fell into the hands of the Emperor of Delhi. In 1616 a British factory, and in 1617 a Dutch factory, were established at Broach. In 1660, a portion of the fortifications of the city was razed to the ground by the order of the Emperor Aurangzeb. In this defenceless state it was twice, in 1675 and 1686, plundered by the Marhattás. After the second attack, Aurangzeb ordered that the walls should be rebuilt, and the city named Sukhábád. In 1736, the Musalmán commandant of the port was raised by Nizám-ul-Mulk to the rank of Nawáb. In April 1771, an attempt on the part of the English to take Broach failed; but in November 1772 a second force was sent against the town, and this time it was stormed and captured. In 1783, it was handed over to Sindhia, but was retaken in 1803 by the British, and since that time it has remained in our possession.

In 1777, the town is said to have contained 50,000 inhabitants; in 1812, 37,716; in 1851, 31,700; and in 1872, 36,932. The only classes calling for special notice are, among Hindus, the Bhárgav Bráhmans, who claim to be descendants of the sage Bhrigu. The Pársís, from the number and antiquity of their Towers of Silence, are supposed to have settled at Broach as far back as the 11th century. Formerly shipbuilders and skilled weavers, they have suffered from the decay of both trades. Many of them have migrated to Bombay, to improve their circumstances; and the frugality of those that are left enables them to keep out of poverty. The Brahma Kshattriyas are influential and prosperous. The greater number and most wealthy of the Banias are Sráwaks or Jains. The Musalmáns are for the most part in a condition of poverty.

Broach is one of the oldest seaports in Western India. Eighte

hundred years ago, it was one of the chief seats of the trade then carried on between India and the ports of Western Asia. In more recent times, though the trade of Guzerat has never again centred in the harbours of this District, Broach so far maintained its position that in the 17th century it sent ships eastward to Java and Sumatra, and westward to Aden and the ports of the Red Sea. Later on, the foreign trade of Guzerat centred more and more in Surat, until from Surat it was transferred to Bombay. The cotton exported from Broach to China and Bengal was sent through Surat and Bombay; and as far back as 1815, the Broach ports ceased to have any foreign commerce. They now possess only a coasting trade south to Bombay and all the intermediate ports, and north as far as Mándvi, in Cutch. The chief articles of trade are, towards the south, exports—flowers of the *mahuá* tree (Bassia latifolia), wheat, and cotton; imports—molasses, rice, betel-nut, timber, coal, iron, and cocoa-nut. To the west and north the exports are—grain, cotton seed, *mahuá* flowers, tiles, and firewood; the imports, chiefly stone for building.

In ancient times, cloth is mentioned as one of the chief articles of export from Broach; and in the 17th century, when the English and Dutch first settled in Guzerat, it was the fame of its cloth manufactures that led them to establish factories in Broach. The kinds of cloth for which Broach was specially known at that time would seem to have been *báftás*, broad and narrow dimities, and other fine calicoes. The gain to the European trader of having a factory at Broach was that he might 'oversee the weavers, buying up the cotton yarn to employ them all the rains, when he sets on foot his investments, that they may be ready against the season for the ships.' About the middle of the 17th century, the District is said to have produced more manufactures, and those of the finest fabrics, than the same extent of country in any other part of the world, not excepting Bengal. In spite of the increasing competition of the produce of steam factories in Bombay, Surat, and Ahmedábád, handloom weaving in Broach has within the last few years shown signs of reviving.

With the exception of a stone mosque constructed out of an older Hindu temple, the city contains no buildings of interest. About 200 yards from the bastion at the north-west corner of the fort, is the tomb of Brigadier David Wedderburn, who was killed at the siege of Broach on 14th November 1772. About two miles west of the fort, are a few large and massive tombs, raised to members of the Dutch Factory. Beyond the Dutch tombs are the five Pársí Towers of Silence: four being old and disused, and the fifth lately built by a rich Pársí merchant of Bombay. The city has been surveyed with a view to protect the rights of both the Government and the public. The municipal income in 1875 amounted to £7689, 4s., the incidence of taxation

being 4s. 1¾d. per head of the population. The drinking-water used by the inhabitants of the intramural parts of the town comes almost all from the Narbadá. There are but few wells in the city; and, unlike Surat and Ahmedábád, the custom of having cisterns in dwelling-houses for the storage of rain-water is not general.

Bubak.—Municipal Town in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Lat. 26° 26′ 30″ N., long. 67° 45′ 15″ E. Pop. (1872), 5703,—Muhammadans, 4285, chiefly of the Korichaki, Jamot, and Machhi tribes; Hindus, 1418, chiefly Bráhmans and Lohános. Municipal revenue in 1873-74, £162; incidence of taxation about 7d. per head. Post office. Carpets of good quality are manufactured. Owing to floods caused by the overflow of the Manchhar Lake, the *zamíndárs* have been of late years considerably impoverished. To resist these encroachments, the town has been surrounded by a ditch. The public health has been affected in consequence, and in 1869 Bubak suffered severely from cholera.

Búd-Búd.—Subdivision of Bardwán District, Bengal, lying between 23° 7′ 15″ and 23° 36′ 45″ N. lat., and between 87° 21′ 30″ and 87° 48′ 45″ E. long. Area, 532 square miles; number of villages, 749; number of houses, 55,248; pop. (1872), 286,131, comprising 239,985 Hindus (83·9 per cent. of the population), 46,088 Muhammadans, 22 Christians, and 36 'others.' Number of males, 140,446—females, 145,685. Average density of population, 538 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·41; houses per square mile, 104; persons per village, 382; persons per house, 5·1. The Subdivision was formed in 1846, and comprises the 3 *thánás* (police circles) of Búd-Búd, Ausgrám, and Sonámukhí. In 1870-71, it contained 1 court with revenue, magisterial, and civil jurisdiction, a regular police force of 127, and a rural police of 2074 men. The total separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year, exclusive of police, was returned at £190.

Búd-Búd.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 24′ 30″ N., long. 87° 34′ 45″ E. Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name (*vide supra*).

Budáun (*Budáon*).—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 39′ and 28° 28′ 30″ N. lat., and between 78° 19′ 15″ and 79° 33′ 15″ E. long.; area, 2004 square miles; population in 1872, 934,348 persons. Budáun forms the south-western District of the Rohilkhand Division; bounded on the north-east by Bareli (Bareilly) and the State of Rámpur, on the north-west by Moradábád, on the south-west by the Ganges, and on the east by Sháhjahánpur. The administrative headquarters are at the town of BUDAUN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Budáun does not materially diff

in its main features from the other portions of the great Gangetic plain. It stretches, with little diversity of surface or scenery, from the valley of the Rámganga on the east to the sacred river which forms its boundary on the west, in an almost unbroken succession of ancient alluvial uplands. But although its level face is seldom interrupted by any elevation greater than a shifting sandhill, yet a closer view discloses minor varieties of soil and productions which at first sight escape the eye in surveying its somewhat monotonous flats. The District is divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Sot, on whose banks the town of Budáun occupies a picturesque eminence, crowned by mouldering battlements of early architecture. The north-eastern of these two regions forms the dividing range between the Sot and the Rámganga, and the soil as it approaches the former stream falls away into huge gaping ravines, through which the surface drainage cuts itself an ever-widening course into the channel below. A large part of this tract still abounds in heavy jungles of *dhák* and wild date, the remnant of that famous forest which once surrounded Aonlá in Bareli District, and into which the armies of the Mughal Emperors dared not penetrate. The estates situated in the heart of this wild region bear the name of the Bánkati villages. Similar patches of dense brushwood may be found scattered here and there in other parts of the District. South-west of the Sot, again, lies the central upland tract, a highly cultivated plain, comprising the richest agricultural land in Budáun. Beyond it, towards the Ganges, rises the high and sandy ridge known as the *bhúr*, which runs parallel to the river from end to end of the District. It consists for the most part of very barren and almost uncultivated land, interspersed at wide distances by villages of Ahírs, whose cattle graze upon the short grass which covers its sandy soil. The lower alluvial basin of the Ganges lies to the south of the *bhúr;* but the fear of inundation prevents cultivators from settling on its uncertain lowlands, and vast savannahs of rank grass and tall *táttar* reeds accordingly usurp the place of tillage. The principal rivers besides the Ganges, the Sot, and the Rámganga, in order from east to west, are the Undhári, the Aril, the Maháwa, the Chhoiya, and the Nakta Nadi. The Ganges is navigable throughout the year for boats of large burden; the Rámganga only in the rainy season, except for small country craft. Several shallow lakes (*jhíls*) lie scattered through the District, the chief of which, the Dalelganj *jhíl*, has a length of about 3 miles. A low belt of porous and somewhat marshy clay, intervening between the *bhúr* and the valley of the Maháwa, probably marks the ancient bed of the Ganges.

History.—Budáun owes its name, as the accepted tradition records, to one Budh, an Ahír prince, who founded the city about the year 905 A.D. His descendants held the surrounding tract for another century,

and Ahírs still form the principal element of the population throughout all the wilder portions of the District. In 1028 A.D., Sayyid Sálár Masáúd Ghází, nephew of Sultán Mahmúd of Ghazní, invaded the country now known as Rohilkhand, and established himself for a time in Budáun. He suffered many losses, however, during his struggle with its Hindu possessors, and eventually abandoned his conquest, leaving many of his followers behind. In 1196, Kutab-ud-dín Aibak, Ghiyás-ud-dín's viceroy in India, captured the fort of Budáun, killed the Rájá, and sacked the city. Shams-ud-dín Altamsh obtained the government of the new dependency, which he exchanged in 1210 for the throne of Delhi. Under his successors, Budáun ranked as a place of great importance, and in 1236 gave a second Emperor to Delhi, in the person of Rukn-ud-dín, whose handsome mosque, the Jamá Masjíd Shamshi, still adorns the city in which he had been governor. During the 13th and 14th centuries, the annals of Budáun are confined to the usual local insurrections and bloody repressions, which form the staple of Indian history before the advent of the Mughals. In 1415, Mahábat Khán, the governor, rose in rebellion, and the Emperor Khizr Khán marched against him in vain. After a reign of eleven years' duration, the rebellious vassal was compelled in 1426 to surrender to Mubárak Sháh, Khizr Khán's successor. Alam Sháh visited the city in 1449; and during his stay, his Wazír joined with Bahlol Lodi in depriving him of all his dominions except Budáun, which he was permitted to retain until his death in 1479. His son-in-law, Husáin Sháh of Jaunpur, then took possession of the District; but Bahlol Lodi soon compelled the intruder to restore it to the Delhi Empire. After the establishment of the Mughal power, Humáyun appointed governors of Sambhal and Budáun; but they disagreed, and the Sambhal governor, having taken Budáun by siege, put his rival to death. Under the administrative organization of Akbar, Budáun was formed in 1556 into a *Sarkár* of *Subah* Delhi, which was granted as a fief to Kásim Alí Khán. In 1571, a great fire consumed the larger part of the city; and in Sháh Jahán's time the seat of government was removed to Bareli (Bareilly). The rise of the Rohillá power, which centred in the latter town, accelerated the decline of Budáun. In 1719, during the reign of Muhammad Sháh, Muhammad Khán Bangash annexed the south-eastern portion of the District, including the city, to Farrukhábád, while the Rohillás under Alí Muhammad seized upon the remainder. In 1754, however, the Rohillás recovered the *parganás* which had been united to Farrukhábád. Their subsequent history, and their subjugation by the Wazír of Oudh, belong more properly to the account of BARELI (BAREILLY) DISTRICT. Dundi Khán of Budáun made his peace with Shujá-ud-daulá before the defeat of Háfiz Rahmat Khán, the national leader, at Míránpur Katra in 1774; but after that event the

Wazír attacked him, notwithstanding his submission, and took possession of Budáun.

In 1801, the District passed with the rest of Rohilkhand under British rule. Originally, it formed part of Moradábád District; but in 1805, five of its *parganás* were transferred to Bareli. In 1823, a District of Sahaswán was erected into a separate charge, comprising portions of Moradábád, Bareli, and Alígarh. Fifteen years later, the headquarters were transferred to Budáun, a larger and more important post than Sahaswán. In 1845, the Alígarh *parganás* lying beyond the Ganges were handed over to the Doáb District of Etah, to which they more naturally belong. Since that period no territorial changes have taken place. The Mutiny of 1857 alone breaks in upon the peaceful course of civil administration. News of the outbreak at Meerut reached Budáun on 15th May. A fortnight later, the treasure guard mutinied, plundered the treasury, and broke open the jail. The civil officers then found themselves compelled to leave for Fatehgarh. On the 2nd of June, the Bareli mutineers marched in, and on the 17th, Abdul Ráhim Khán assumed the government of the District. As usual, disturbances broke out between the Hindus and the Musalmán leaders; and in July and August, the Muhammadans fought two regular battles with the Thákurs, whom they completely defeated. At the end of August, several European fugitives crossed the Ganges into the District, and were protected at Dátaganj by the landholders. After the fall of Walidád Khán's fort at Málágarh, that rebel chieftain passed into Budáun in October, but found it advisable to proceed to Fatehgarh. On the 5th of November, the Musalmáns defeated the Ahírs at Gunaur, and took possession of that *tahsíl*, hitherto held by our police. Towards the close of January 1858, the rebels, under Niáz Muhammad, marched against Fatehgarh, but were met by Sir Hope Grant's force at Shamsábád and utterly dispersed. Niáz Muhammad then returned to Budáun. On the 27th of April, General Penny's force defeated the rebels at Kakrála, while Major Gordon fell upon them in the north, near Bisauli. Their leaders fled to Bareli, and managers were at once appointed to the various *parganás* on behalf of the British Government. By the 12th of May, Budáun came once more into our hands, though Tántia Topi with his fugitive army afterwards crossed this portion of Rohilkhand into Oudh, on the 27th. Brigadier Coke's column entered the District on the 3rd of June, and Colonel Wilkinson's from Bareli on the 8th. Order was then permanently restored, and has not since been menaced.

Population.—Budáun is one of the Districts where population has steadily increased during the last 25 years. In 1853, the number of inhabitants was returned at 845,868; in 1865, it had risen to 889,810; while in 1872, it reached a total of 934,348. The increase for the 19

years accordingly amounted to 88,480 souls, or 10·3 per cent.; but the actual rate of increase was really greater, as the area for 1853 exceeded that for 1872 by 397 square miles. The density per square mile at the former date averaged 424 persons, while at the latter it amounted to 466 persons. The enumeration of 1872 was taken over an area of 2004 square miles; it disclosed a total population of 934,348 persons, distributed among 2364 villages or townships, and inhabiting 193,589 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 466; villages per square mile, 1·1; houses per square mile, 96; persons per village, 395; persons per house, 4·8. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 503,619; females, 430,729; proportion of males, 53·9 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 182,034; females, 151,846; total, 333,880, or 35·7 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 794,532, or 85·1 per cent.; while the Musalmáns amounted to only 139,687, or 14·9 per cent. The proportion of Muhammadans is smaller in Budáun than in any other District of Rohilkhand, except Sháhjahánpur. The Census also returned 129 persons as Christians or 'others.' Among the various Hindu castes, the Bráhmans numbered 63,541; Rájputs, 65,258; Banias, or trading class, 21,701; Ahírs, graziers on the *bhúr* tract, 81,522; Chamárs, landless agriculturists, who have emerged under British rule from the position of serfs, 133,528 (the most numerous class in the District); Káyasths, 9726; and Kurmís, 6143. The Musalmán population was divided between the four great tribes as follows: Shaikhs, 104,743; Sayyids, 3320; Mughals, 1360; and Patháns, 30,092. The total agricultural population amounted to 627,737. Three predatory races infest the District—the Bhantus, a Hindu tribe who wander about in large gangs of from 20 to 50 persons, and live entirely by begging and stealing; the Habúrahs, also Hindus, who form smaller bands, and occasionally undertake field-work; and the Sansias, a vagrant Musalmán clan who cross over from the Doáb, and bear a bad reputation for kidnapping children. Six towns contain a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, BUDAUN, 33,322; SAHASWAN, 17,063; UJHANI, 7656; ISLAMNAGAR, 5424; ALAPUR, 5347; and BILSI, 5282. BISAULI, which had less than 5000 inhabitants at the date of the Census, is also a considerable town, with many fine Pathán buildings, including a handsome mosque.

Agriculture.—The District contains 2004 square miles, of which 1350 are cultivated, 378 are cultivable, and 276 are uncultivable. The fertile upland of Budáun consists of a light loam or argillaceous soil, merging gradually into the heavier and almost barren sand of the *bhúr* region; but the District also comprises considerable fringes of lowland, known as *khádir* and *tarái*. The *khádir* is composed of porous clay,

capable of producing two crops a year for many seasons in succession; and occupies the deserted channel of the Ganges, where water may always be found at a few feet below the surface. It is specially adapted for rice, which is always grown for the autumn harvest; while barley and wheat follow immediately as spring crops. The *tarái* comprises the modern alluvial fringe along the present beds of the Ganges and the Rámganga. The valley of the former river contains several large patches of *usar* land, whitened by the destructive saline efflorescence known as *reh*, which appears upon the surface after inundations or heavy rain. The mode of tillage does not differ from that of other North-Western Districts. The *kharíf* or autumn crops include cotton, rice, *joár*, *bájra*, and *moth*; the *rabí* or spring crops consist chiefly of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other cereals or pulses. Manure is not employed for the ordinary agricultural staples, but is copiously applied to the lands immediately around the villages, which produce poppy, tobacco, vegetables, and other choice crops. The ordinary modes of personal and communal tenure exist in Budáun, divisible into the three chief heads of *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, and *bháyachárá*. The Rájputs are the great landowning caste, and they hold in all 622 estates. The Shaikh Musalmáns rank next with 346 estates, and the Ahírs third with 194. Where many small proprietors exist, the owner often cultivates the whole, or nearly the whole, of his land; but, as a rule, the greater portion is leased to cultivating tenants. Out of the total cultivated area of 891,189 acres, 139,106 acres are held by the proprietors as *sír* or homestead; while 561,212 acres are tilled by tenants with rights of occupancy, and 190,871 acres by tenants-at-will. The income of the landlord receives considerable additions from the customary dues or cesses which tenants present upon certain stated occasions. Each agricultural tenant must supply a measure of bran in the spring, and a bundle of fodder in the autumn; he must plough his landlord's fields twice a year, at the festivals of *Holi* and *Dasahára*, and must lend his cart to carry home the harvest. In like manner, the oilman must offer a jar of oil, the tanner a pair of shoes, and the potter 50 earthen vessels a year; while the tailor is similarly bound to make four suits of clothes for his landlord, who supplies the cloth, but pays nothing for the labour. These dues give the proprietor great social consequence as the chief personage in his own village; and the tenants in return expect from him many favours, which would not be shown if they were remiss in discharging their customary obligations. The situation of Budáun, lying apart from the busy channels of trade, has produced a less rapid rise in prices and wages than has occurred in many neighbouring Districts. The construction of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, however, has greatly added to the facilities for distributing the local produce, and rents and prices have both felt the influence of this

important change. In 1877, coolies and unskilled labourers received $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to $3\frac{3}{4}$d. per diem; agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to 3d. per diem; and bricklayers or carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. The prices current of food-stuffs ruled as follows in 1876: Wheat, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; rice, 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 4d. per cwt.; *joár*, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Floods on the Ganges and Maháwa occur to a greater or less extent every year; and when they rise unusually high or late, much of the autumn crop is carried away. The loss, however, is not considerable, as the banks of these rivers are lined with jungle, and only occasionally cultivated by speculative proprietors. But Budáun suffers greatly from drought, the common scourge of all Upper India. The first recorded famine occurred in the year 1761, when many of the people died, and large numbers emigrated. The next severe scarcity took place in 1803-4, when the autumn crops utterly failed, and the spring harvest fell far below the average. In the great famine of 1837-38, Budáun suffered the extreme of misery, thousands died of starvation, grain rose to unattainable prices, and the police found themselves powerless for the preservation of order. In 1860, the autumn crops again failed, and no rain fell after September; the spring sowings accordingly perished, and many persons died of starvation. The price of grain began to rise in August 1860, and continued high till March 1861, when it gradually fell, and in October, ordinary rates once more prevailed. In 1868, the rains partially failed, and distress arose in 1869, as the autumn harvest had only produced half its average yield; but timely showers in January and February 1869 prevented the scarcity from ever reaching famine pitch.

Commerce, etc.—The trade of Budáun, which is chiefly confined to agricultural produce, centres in the three towns of BUDAUN, SAHASWAN, and BILSI. The last-named mart forms the main distributing agency for European goods and imported wares in this part of Rohilkhand. Its imports include chintz, salt, groceries, iron, metal-work, and *pán*; while its exports consist chiefly of sugar, grain, and leather. A great fair takes place at Kakora, on the 15th of Kártik, attended by about 100,000 persons. Other large fairs are held at Cháopur (20,000 visitors), Sukhela (10,000), Lakhanpur (7000), and Bára Chirra (5000). The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway cuts the District in two places. The main line from Bareli (Bareilly) to Chandausi traverses the north-eastern angle for a length of 16 miles, with 3 stations—namely, Karengí (better known as Mahmúdpur), Dabtúra, and Asafpur. The Moradábád and Alígarh branch runs through the north-western corner for a distance of 13 miles to Rájghát on the Ganges, where it crosses the river by an iron bridge. Good roads connect all the principal centres of population; th

most important being that from Bareli to Háthras, through Budáun and Ujháni, crossing the Ganges at Kachlaghát by a bridge of boats. Four other similar bridges exist at Anúpshahr, Rájghát, Kádirchauk, and Surájpurghát—the last two on the Etah and Fatehgarh roads respectively. The Ganges is navigable throughout the year for boats of large burden.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Collector-Magistrate, 1 Joint and 1 Assistant Magistrate, 1 Deputy Magistrate, and 5 *tahsíldárs*. The Judge of Sháhjahánpur holds civil and criminal jurisdiction over the eastern portion of the District, while the Judge of Bareli has charge of the remainder. Five *munsif's* courts are also established at East and West Budáun, Dátaganj, Sahaswán, and Bisauli. The whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District in 1876, amounted to £151,225, being at the rate of 2s. 2⅜d. per head. Of this sum, £102,914, or a little more than two-thirds, was contributed by the land tax. The regular police force in 1875 numbered 671 officers and men, and the cost of their maintenance amounted to £7409. These figures show 1 policeman to every 3 square miles and to every 1541 of the population; while the expense of the establishment was at the rate of £3, 12s. per square mile, and 2d. per head of population. In addition, there were 1990 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), maintained at an estimated cost of £7164. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2661 men of all ranks, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every ·8 square mile and every 351 of the population; while the expense of the whole establishment equalled £14,573, being at the rate of £7, 5s. 5¼d. per square mile and 3¾d. per inhabitant. The District contains but one jail, which had a daily average of 323 prisoners in 1875, including 13 females. The mean cost per head was returned at £3, 5s. 7½d., and the average earnings of each prisoner at 12s. There were 7 Imperial and 11 District post offices in 1877, besides 4 telegraph stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Education was carried on in 1875 by 336 schools, attended by 7874 pupils, being at the rate of 1 school to every 5·96 square miles of area. The total educational budget in the same year amounted to £3679. The superior District school teaches up to the standard of the entrance examination for the Calcutta University, and has a boarding-house attached, for boys from a distance. There are aided schools under the superintendence of the American Methodist Episcopal Mission. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into 5 *tahsíls* and 11 *parganás*, containing, in 1871, an aggregate number of 2021 estates, held by 30,104 registered proprietors or coparceners. Average land revenue from each estate, £46, 6s.; from each proprietor, £3, 2s. 3d. Municipalities have been established at BUDAUN, BILSI, UJHANI, and SAHAS-

WAN. In 1875-76, their joint revenue amounted to £5180; from taxes, £3025, or 11⅝d. per head of population (62,059) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Budáun resembles that of other Districts in Rohilkhand, being somewhat cooler and moister than the adjacent portions of the Doáb, owing to the greater proximity of the hills and the damp submontane tract. The average total rainfall for the 11 years ending 1871, amounted to 29·4 inches per annum. The maximum during this period was 44·2 inches in 1871, and the minimum 14·0 inches in 1868, when the danger of famine was imminent. The mean annual temperature reached 76° F. in 1871, with a maximum monthly average of 91° in June, and a minimum of 58° F. in January. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1875 was 22,052, or 23·60 per thousand of the population. The average death-rate for the previous six years was 17·10 per thousand. Charitable dispensaries have been established at Budáun, Sahaswán, Gunaur, Islámnagar, Bisauli, Dátaganj, Usehát, and Bílsi. These eight institutions afforded relief in 1875 to 51,632 persons, of whom 1643 were in-door patients.

Budáun.—Ancient city, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 2′ 30″ N., long. 79° 9′ 45″ E.; area, 335 acres; pop. (1872), 33,322. Lies on the banks of the river Sot, and consists of an old and a new town. The former stands on a commanding eminence, and contains the fort, whose enormous ramparts of early architecture gird it round on three sides. Handsome mosque, originally a Hindu temple, built of massive stone, and crowned by a dome of singular beauty. Dispensary, school, town hall, jail. Stands rather apart from modern course of traffic, owing to growth of railways, which have somewhat diverted its trade. Founded, according to tradition, by Budh, an Ahír prince, about 905 A.D. Held by his descendants till the invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd Ghází, nephew of Mahmúd of Ghazní, in 1028 A.D. Sacked by Kutab-ud-dín in 1186. Seat of Government for a *sarkár* under the Patháns and Mughals until 1571. Centre of disturbance during the Mutiny of 1857 (*see* BUDAUN DISTRICT). Municipal revenue (1875-76), £2985; from taxes, £1660, or 1s. 0¾d. per head of population (31,227) within municipal limits.

Buddh Gayá (or *Bodh Gayá*).—Village in Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 41′ 45″ N., long. 85° 2′ 4″ E. Situated about 6 miles south of Gayá town, a few hundred yards west of the Phálgú or Nilájan river. The ruins at this place are among the most interesting and famous in the world, for it is acknowledged to have been the dwelling-place of Sakya Muni, the founder of the Buddhist religion, who flourished in the 6th century before the Christian era. According to General Cunningham, Buddha had ascended a mountain to the south-east of

Gayá, called Prágbodhi, for the purpose of dwelling in silent solitude on its summit; but being disturbed by the tremblings caused by the flight of the god of the mountain, he descended on the south-west side, and went 2½ miles to the *pípal* tree (Ficus religiosa) at Buddh Gayá. Mid-way in the descent, there was a cave (mentioned by the Chinese pilgrim Fa Hian) where Buddha rested with his legs crossed. Under the *pípal* tree the sage sat in mental abstraction for five years, until he obtained Buddha-hood. This celebrated *bodhi drúm*, or Tree of Wisdom, still exists, but in a very decayed state. To the east, is a massive brick temple, 50 feet square at the base and 160 feet high, which is supposed to be the *vihár* referred to by Hiouen Thsang. The *rájásthán* or palace in the northern portion of the ruins measures 1482 feet by 1006 in its greatest dimensions; it was probably the residence of the Buddhist King Asoka, and his successors on the throne of Magadha. Immediately south of the palace was the temple, the remains of which measure 800 feet from east to west and 480 from north to south. The temple was rebuilt or restored by a Burmese king in 1305-6 A.D. But the only part which is still entire is the great *mandír* or shrine, a slender rectangular pyramid of great height. The spire is on three sides surrounded by a terrace 98 feet long by 78 wide, and 25 or 30 feet in height. The eastern end of this terrace formerly covered the porch, which has now fallen and brought down part of the terrace with it. Behind the temple is the celebrated *pípal* tree, around the roots of which has been built a circular heap of brick and mortar, now covered with images and carved fragments of stone. The interior of the shrine consists of a chamber, at the far end of which is a throne of stone containing a huge mis-shapen daub of clay representing Buddha. Above this chamber are two others, one on the level of the old terrace, and the other higher; but the falling of the porch has cut off all communication with these chambers. Pilgrims visit Buddh Gayá in large numbers, and deposit their offerings under the sacred *pípal* tree; but since the abolition of the fees formerly levied, the exact number cannot be accurately estimated. Close by the temple is a large convent of Sanyásis, the *mahant* or abbot of which shows visitors over the convent after they have visited the temple.

Buddhain (or *Buddhavana*; 'Fo-tho-fa-na' of Hiouen Thsang).—Hill in Gayá District, Bengal; 17 miles north-east of Kurkihár village. Lat. 25° N., long. 85° 31′ E. On account of its commanding position, it was made one of the stations of the great Trigonometrical Survey.

Buddri.—Town in Partábgarh District, Oudh; on the road from Bihár to Mánikpur, 28 miles from Allahábád. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 1021; Muhammadans, 113; total, 1134. Ruined fort.

Budge-Budge.—Village in 24 Parganás District, Bengal.—*See* BAJ-BAJ.

Budhána.—South-western *tahsíl* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the West Káli Nadi and the Jumna, and traversed by the Hindan river and the Eastern Jumna Canal. Area, 286 square miles, of which 215 are cultivated. Pop. (1872), 157,763 souls; land revenue, £28,890; total revenue, £33,429; rental paid by cultivators, £72,047; incidence of land revenue per acre, 3s. 1⅞d.

Budhána.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 29° 16′ 50″ N., long. 77° 31′ 10′ E.; pop. (1872), 6162, comprising 3867 Hindus and 2295 Musalmáns. Situated on right bank of river Hindan, distant from Muzaffarnagar 19 miles south-west. Outer walls of the houses adjoin each other so as to form a kind of fortification, through which four openings, called gates, give access to the town. *Bázár*, first-class police station, post office. Malarious fever occasionally prevails. During the Mutiny the old fort of Budhána was occupied by Khairáti Khán of Parasauli, with the assistance of the Jaula people, but recovered on the 15th of September 1857.

Budhátá.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 37′ N., long. 89° 12′ E. Once a very flourishing place, and still a considerable trading village. In 1857 it contained a police station, salt warehouse (*golá*), landholder's revenue court, and many rice granaries; markets were held twice a week. Ruins of extensive masonry buildings are visible, and there is a set of 12 temples dedicated to Siva, called Dwádas *mandir*. Annual fairs are held at the Hindu festivals of the *Rás-játrá*, *Durgá-pújá*, and *Káli-pújá*.

Budhpur.—Village in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; situated on the Kásái river. Lat. 22° 58′ 15″ N., long. 86° 44′ E. Extending for two miles along the bank are several ruins of what are thought to be Jain temples. A number of carved slabs of stone are scattered about; and an extensive collection of octagonal headstones is believed to mark the graves of the early settlers. About four miles to the north, at Pákbírá, is a group of temples with a colossal figure about 9 feet high, supposed to represent Buddha.

Budihál.—*Táluk* in Chitaldrúg (Chitaldroog) District, Mysore. Area, 348 square miles; pop. (1871), 37,337; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £6904, or 2s. 3d. per cultivated acre. Cocoa-nut palms are largely grown.

Budihál.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 37′ N., long. 76° 28′ E.; pop. (1871), 1137. The fort, erected by an official under the Vijáyanagar dynasty, contains several inscriptions of the 16th century. It suffered during the wars between the Muhammadans and Marhattás, and is now in a ruinous state. It was one of the last places at which the insurgents held out during the disturbances of 1830.

The headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name have been transferred to Huliyar.

Budikot (*'Fort of Ashes'*).—Village in Kolár District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 54′ 40″ N., long. 78° 9′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 1370. Birthplace of Haidar Alí, who was born in 1722, when his father, Fateh Muhammad Khán, was living at Budikot as Faujdár of Kolár under the Nawáb of Sira. Small fair held weekly on Mondays, attended by 100 persons.

Búdoung (*Boodoung*).—Revenue Circle, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 973; gross revenue, £477.

Buffalo Rocks (*Liep Kywon*, or 'Turtle Island').—Lat. 16° 19′ to 16° 22′ N., long. 94° 12′ E., bearing nearly S. ½W. from Calventura Rock, and distant from it 10 or 11 leagues. A group of rugged detached rocks extending nearly north and south for 3 miles, and lying off the coast of Pegu 29 miles from shore, bearing north from the western extremity of Cape Negrais. The North Buffalo is almost half a mile to the south-west of South Buffalo Island, and separated from it by the Perforated and Pillar Rocks. On the west side of the rocks, the soundings are regular—20 fathoms about a mile from them, and 50 or 60 fathoms at 5 leagues distant.

Bukkapatnam.—Town in Bellary District, Madras; situated on the Trunk Road, 18 miles from Bangalore. Pop. (1871), 4339. The station of a sub-magistrate and police force. Besieged in 1740 by the Poligár of Ráidrúg. The Poligár of Bellary raised the siege, and, having been admitted as an ally within the fortifications, seized the place. The tank here is the largest in the District, and possesses some historical interest. It is formed by a dam, erected 400 years ago across the Chitrávati river, connecting the two low ranges of hills which flank that stream, and irrigates 3500 acres, yielding £2100 per annum in land revenue.

Bukkur (*Bakkar*).—Fortified island in the river Indus, lying between the towns of Sukkur and Rohri, in the Sukkur and Shikárpur Deputy-Collectorate; lat. 27° 42′ 45″ N., and long. 68° 56′ 30″ E. It is a rock of limestone, oval in shape, 800 yards long, 300 wide, and about 25 feet in height. The channel separating it from the Sukkur shore is not more than 100 yards wide, and, when the river is at its lowest, about 15 feet deep in the middle. The eastern channel, or that which divides it from Rohri, is much broader, being, during the same state of the river, about 400 yards wide, with a depth of 30 feet in the middle. The Government telegraph line from Rohri to Sukkur crosses the river here by the island of Bukkur. A little to the N. of Bukkur, and separated from it by a narrow channel of easy passage, is the small isle of Khwája Khizr (or Jind Pír), containing a shrine of much sanctity; while to the south of Bukkur is another islet known as Sádh Bela, well covered with foliage, and also possessing some sacred shrines. Almost the whole

of the island of Bukkur is occupied by the fortress, the walls of which are double, and from 30 to 35 feet high, with numerous bastions; they are built partly of burnt and unburnt brick, are loophooled, and have two gateways, one facing Rohri on the E., and the other Sukkur on the W. The fort presents a fine appearance from the river, and has a show of great strength, which in reality it does not possess. Until 1876, Bukkur was used as a jail subsidiary to that at Shikárpur. That Bukkur, owing to its insulated position, must always have been considered a stronghold of some importance under Native rule, is evidenced by its being so frequently a bone of contention between different states. So early as A.D. 1327, when Sind was an appanage of the Delhi Empire, Bukkur seems to have been a place of note, from the fact of trustworthy persons being employed by the Emperor Muhammad Tughlak to command there. During the reign of the Samma princes, this fort seems to have changed hands several times, being occasionally under their rule, and at times under that of Delhi. During the reign of Sháh Beg Arghún, the fortifications of Bukkur appear to have been partially, if not wholly, rebuilt, the fort of Alor being broken up to supply the requisite material. In A.D. 1574, the place was delivered up to one Keshú Khán, a servant of the Mughal Emperor Akbar Sháh. In A.D. 1736, the fortress fell into the hands of the Kalhora princes, and at a subsequent date into that of the Afgháns, by whom it was retained till captured by Mír Rustam Khán of Khairpur. In 1839, during the First Afghán war, the fort of Bukkur was ceded by the Khairpur Mírs to the British, to be occupied by them, and it so remained till the conquest of the Province in 1843. Bukkur was the principal British arsenal in Sind during the Afghán and Sind campaigns.

Bulandshahr.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 3′ 30″ and 28° 42′ 45″ N. lat., and between 77° 20′ and 78° 31′ 45″ E. long. Area, according to Parliamentary Return (1877), 1910 square miles; population in 1872, 936,667. Bulandshahr is a District of the Meerut (Mírath) Division; bounded on the north by Meerut; on the west by the river Jumna; on the south by Alígarh; and on the east by the Ganges. The administrative headquarters are at the town of BULANDSHAHR, but KHURJA is the most populous city in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Bulandshahr forms a portion of the Doáb, or alluvial plain, enclosed between the Ganges and the Jumna, and presents the usual sameness which characterises all parts of that monotonous tract. Its surface exhibits to the eye an almost uniform level of cultivated soil, stretching from one great boundary river to the other, with a scarcely perceptible watershed in its centre separating their respective tributaries. The plain follows the general slope of the Doáb from north-west to south-east, as indicated by the courses of the two main

streams themselves, no less than by those of the minor channels. The average elevation is about 650 feet above the sea. Shortly before reaching the bed of either arterial river, the central plateau descends abruptly by a series of terraces, scored with deeply-cut ravines, into the *khádir* or low-lying alluvial valley which forms the actual bank. The upland plain, here as elsewhere throughout the Doáb, is naturally dry and barren, intersected by sandy ridges, and rapidly drained by small water-courses, which have excavated for themselves a network of petty gorges in the loose and friable soil. But this unpromising region has been turned into a garden of cereals, cotton, and dye-plants by the industry of its inhabitants and the enterprise of its modern rulers, especially through the instrumentality of artificial irrigation. The Ganges Canal passes through the whole length of the District from north to south, entering in three main branches, one of which again divides into two near the town of Sikandarábád. The central branch is navigable throughout the District; and the whole system is distributed to the fields around by 626 miles of lesser ramifications. Under the beneficial influence of the water so supplied, cultivation has spread widely in Bulandshahr. There is now little waste land in the District, except a few patches of worthless jungle in the neighbourhood of the Ganges; and even this is rapidly disappearing wherever the soil is sufficiently good to repay the cost of tillage. There are, however, several strips of barren land known as *usar*, covered with the white saline efflorescence called *reh*, and incapable of producing any vegetation. The salt seems to be deposited in beds below the surface of the higher lands, and to be carried down to the ravines and hollows in a state of solution after heavy rain. In such situations it collects upon the ground as the water evaporates, and presents an appearance not unlike that of hoar-frost or newly fallen snow. Occasionally, mirages are produced by refraction from its heated surface; in which case it affords the delusive picture of some vast sheet of water, on whose calm bosom the neighbouring trees and fields are faithfully mirrored. But the agriculturist finds the *reh* less picturesque than destructive, as its spread effectually puts a stop to all cultivation; nor have any means been yet devised for checking its insidious advance. Unfortunately, the same canals which water and fertilize the dry soil of Bulandshahr are suspected of causing an increased efflorescence of this deleterious salt. The chief internal streams are the Hindan and the East Káli Nadi.

History.—The early traditions of the people assert that the modern District of Bulandshahr formed a portion of the great Pandava kingdom of Hastinapur; and that after that city was cut away by the Ganges, the tract was administered by a Governor who resided at the ancient town of AHAR. Whatever credence may be placed in these myths,

we know from the evidence of inscriptions that the District was inhabited by Gaur Bráhmans, and ruled over by the Gupta dynasty, in the 3rd century of our era. Few glimpses of historic light have been cast upon the annals of this region before the advent of the Muhammadans, with whose approach authentic history begins for the whole of Northern India. When Mahmúd of Ghazní arrived at Baran (as the town of Bulandshahr is often called to the present day), in the year 1018, he found it in possession of a native prince, named Hardatta. The presence of so doughty an apostle as Mahmúd naturally affected the Hindu ruler; and accordingly the Rájá himself, and ten thousand followers, came forth, says the Musalmán historian, 'and proclaimed their anxiety for conversion and their rejection of idols.' This timely repentance saved their lives and property for the time; but Mahmúd's raid was the occasion for a great immigration towards the Doáb of many fresh tribes, who still hold a place in the District. In 1193, Kutab-ud-dín appeared before Baran, which was for some time strenuously defended by the Dor Rájá; but through the treachery of his kinsman Ajáyapál, the town was at last captured by the Musalmán force. The traitorous Hindu accepted the faith of Islám and the *chaudri*-ship of Baran, where his descendants still reside, and own considerable landed property. The 14th century is marked as the epoch when many of the present tribes inhabiting Bulandshahr first gained a footing in the region. Numerous Rájput adventurers poured into the defenceless country, and expelled the unhappy Meos from their lands and villages. This was also the period of the early Mughal invasions; so that the condition of the Doáb was one of extreme wretchedness, caused by the combined ravages of pestilence, war, and famine, with the usual concomitant of internal anarchy. The firm establishment of the Mughal dynasty gave a long respite of tranquillity and comparatively settled government to these harassed Provinces. They shared in the administrative reconstruction of Akbar, and their annals are devoid of incidents during the flourishing reigns of his great successors. Here, as in so many other Districts, the proselytizing zeal of Aurangzeb has left permanent effects in the large number of Musalmán converts; but Bulandshahr was too near the court to afford much opportunity for those rebellious and royal conquests which make up the staple elements of Mughal history. During the disastrous decline of the Imperial power, which dates from the accession of Bahádur Sháh in 1707, the country round Baran was a prey to the same misfortunes which overtook all the more fertile Provinces of the Empire. The Gújars and Játs, always to be found in the foreground upon every occasion of disturbance, exhibited their usual turbulent spirit; and many of their chieftains carved out principalities from the villages of their neighbours. But as Baran was at this time a dependency of Koil,

it has no proper history of its own during the 18th century, apart from that of ALIGARH DISTRICT. Under the Marhattá rule it continued to be administered from Koil; and when that town, with the adjoining fort of Alígarh, was captured by the British forces in 1803, Bulandshahr and the surrounding country were incorporated into the newly formed District. In 1817, they were transferred from Alígarh to Meerut; and in 1823, the present District was organized by the union of the northern *parganás* of Alígarh with the southern ones of Meerut. From that date till the Mutiny, the peaceful course of history in Bulandshahr is only marked by the opening of the Ganges Canal, which has so largely contributed to the prosperity of the Doáb. The events of 1857 were ushered in by the revolt of the 9th Native Infantry, which took place on the 21st of May, shortly after the outbreak at Alígarh. The officers were compelled to fly to Meerut, and Bulandshahr was plundered by a band of rebellious Gújars. Its recovery was a matter of great importance, as it lies on the main road from Agra and Alígarh to Meerut. Accordingly a small body of volunteers was despatched from Meerut for the purpose of retaking the town, which they were enabled to do by the aid of the Dehra Gurkhás. Shortly after, however, the Gurkhás marched off again to join General Wilson's column, and the Gújars once more rose in rebellion. Walidád Khán of Málágarh put himself at the head of the movement, which proved strong enough to drive the small European garrison out of the District. From the beginning of July till the end of September, Walidád held Bulandshahr without opposition, and commanded the whole line of communications with Agra. Meantime, internal feuds went on as briskly as in other revolted Provinces, the old proprietors often ousting by force the possessors of their former estates. But on the 25th of September, Colonel Greathed's flying column set out from Gháziábád for Bulandshahr, whence Walidád was expelled after a sharp engagement, and forced to fly across the Ganges. On the 4th of October, the District was regularly occupied by Colonel Farquhar, and order was rapidly restored. The police were at once reorganized, while measures of repression were adopted against the refractory Gújars, many of whom still continued under arms. It was necessary to march against the rebels in Etah early in 1858, but the tranquillity of Bulandshahr itself was not again disturbed. Throughout the progress of the Mutiny, the Játs almost all took the side of Government, while the Gújars and Musalmán Rájputs proved our most irreconcilable enemies.

Population.—The earliest attempt to enumerate the inhabitants of Bulandshahr, made in 1847, returned a total population of 699,093 souls, or 376 to the square mile. In 1853, the District was included in the first regular Census; when it was then found, in spite of a considerable transfer of villages to Delhi and Alígarh, that the popu-

lation amounted to 778,342 souls, or 427 to the square mile. At the Census of 1865, the numbers had risen to 800,431 souls. In 1872, the returns showed a further advance to the total of 936,667, being an increase of 136,236 persons in the short space of seven years. The District then contained 1566 villages, and 182,694 houses, which figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, 0·8; houses per square mile, 95; inhabitants per square mile, 490; inhabitants per village, 598; inhabitants per house, 5·1. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics) 493,682 males and 442,911 females; proportion of males, 52·7 per cent. The preponderance of males is doubtless due, in part at least, to the former prevalence of female infanticide; but this practice, which all the vigilance of Government was long unable to suppress, is now disappearing under the stringent regulations put in force under the Act of 1870. Classified according to age, there were (with the same omission), under 12 years —males, 183,759; females, 158,494; total, 342,253, or 36·54 per cent. of the whole population. With regard to religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 760,602, and the Musalmáns 175,900, being 77·8 and 22·2 per cent. of the inhabitants respectively; or, roughly speaking, two followers of Islam for every seven adherents of the ancient religion. Christians and 'others' were returned at 165 persons. Amongst Hindus, the Bráhmans muster very strongly, the enumeration disclosing as many as 98,932 persons belonging to the sacred class. They hold between them 70 entire villages, besides being part-proprietors of many others. A portion of one Bráhman clan in this District has embraced Islám, though still maintaining its relationship with the Hindu branch. The second great class, that of the Rájputs, is also numerous, being returned at 75,633 souls. They are the most important land-owning element in Bulandshahr, holding altogether 464 entire villages, together with shares in several more. Badgújars are their wealthiest clan, owning nearly one-seventh of the total area. A large branch of them are Musalmáns, who still keep up many Hindu customs—for instance, they do not slaughter cattle, and they retain the Hindu prefix of *Thákur* as a title of respect. The Bháls are also divided into a Hindu and a Musalmán branch. It is noticeable in each case that the Muhammadan families are wealthier and more powerful than their kinsmen of the ancient faith. The Banias or trading classes number 44,966 persons, and hold 36 villages, nearly all of which have been acquired under British rule. But the great mass of the population in Bulandshahr, as in all parts of the North-Western Provinces, belongs to the classes enumerated in the Census returns as 'other castes.' These show an aggregate of 541,071 souls, subdivided into 78 separate tribes. Amongst them, the most numerous are the Chamárs (146,129 persons), after whom come the Játs (56,453), Lodhás

(51,513), Gújars (48,786), and Khákrobs (29,501). The Musalmáns form an important element in the proprietary body, and one large estate of 63 villages is in the hands of a Eurasian Christian family. As regards occupation, 22,049 persons are returned as landowners, and 438,294 as agriculturists. The District contains 12 towns with a population exceeding 5000—namely, KHURJA, 26,858; SIKANDARABAD, 18,349; BULANDSHAHR or BARAN, 14,804; SHIKARPUR, 11,150; JAHANGIRABAD, 9408; ANUPSHAHR, 9336; DIBAI, 7782; JEWAR, 7399; SIANA, 6268; JHAJHAR, 5632; GALAOTHI, 5608; and DANKAUR, 5423. These figures show an urban population of 128,117 persons, leaving 808,476 for the rural population. The language in use in the country districts is Hindí, the Musalmáns of the towns speak Urdu, and the town Hindus use dialect compounded of both.

Agriculture.—During the last twenty-five years, the cultivated area of Bulandshahr has increased by nearly 100,000 acres, and the margin of cultivable soil is still being rapidly reclaimed. In 1871, the land under tillage amounted to 851,366 acres, almost equally divided between spring and rain crops. Wheat, barley, and gram are the staple products of the *rabí* harvest; and common millets and pulses of the *kharíf*. Indigo is also widely cultivated, forming one of the main commercial crops; and cotton, safflower, and tobacco are grown in all parts of the District. In 1871, the acreage under the principal crops was returned as follows:—*Joár* and *bájra*, 237,355 acres; wheat and barley, 325,272 acres; cotton, 59,871 acres; pulses, 28,628 acres. The advantages of irrigation are thoroughly appreciated in Bulandshahr, more than one-fourth of the cultivated area being artificially supplied with water. In 1871, as much as 268,868 acres were thus treated, and since that period the amount of irrigated land has increased. Canals alone afforded water to 121,968 acres; but even this is far from showing the whole benefit derived from these undertakings, as they have been instrumental in promoting the growth of valuable export products, such as cotton, indigo, and oil-seeds, rather than cheap food-stuffs. Canal irrigation is both cheaper and better than the old method of watering from wells, and by its comparative certainty is eliminating the element of chance from the agriculture of the District. Manuring is little practised, as the expense is beyond the limited means of the cultivators. A model farm was established near Baran for five years for purposes of experiment. Its results were in favour of the belief that under existing circumstances the native methods, developed and improved, are the best for the country and the people. The condition of the peasantry has been greatly ameliorated of late years, and they are now as comfortably off as in any portion of the Doáb. Few cultivators are in debt to the village bankers, nor are those functionaries acquiring landed property so rapidly as in other Districts.

About one-half of the cultivated area is held by tenants-at-will, the remainder being divided between proprietary and hereditary cultivators. Bulandshahr is one of the few Districts in the North-Western Provinces which possesses a territorial aristocracy, residing in the midst of their clans upon their ancestral estates, and exercising over the people a feudal influence, for good or for evil, which no modern purchaser could hope to acquire. Rents are payable both in kind and in money; the hereditary cultivators having in either case a prescriptive right to lower rates than the general body of tenants. Best irrigated lands bring in £1 4s. per acre; best unirrigated, 14s.: outlying lands—irrigated, 8s. to 10s. 6d. per acre; unirrigated, 3s. 6d. to 5s. Wages and prices have nearly doubled since 1850. Agricultural labourers in 1876 were usually paid in grain to the value of about 3d. a day, rising at harvest time to as much as 6d.; women obtained two-thirds and boys one-half of a man's wages. In 1867, skilled labourers obtained from 12s. to £1, 10s. a month, the wages of stone-cutters occasionally rising as high as £2. At the same date, prices ruled as follows: Gram, 4s. 4¼d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *joár*, 3s. 5½d. per cwt.; wheat, 4s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Bulandshahr suffered in former times from famines due to continued drought; but there is reason to hope that the spread of irrigation has removed this cause of apprehension for the future. The people still remember with horror the scarcity of 1837, which has indelibly imprinted its miseries on the popular mind. Another great famine, also due to drought, occurred in 1860, when the Bulandshahr branch canal was constructed as a relief work, giving occupation to 2500 able-bodied persons; and in addition gratuitous assistance was afforded to 11,396 weak or aged applicants. The District was affected even more severely than its neighbours by the rainless season of 1868-69; but, owing doubtless to the great increase of irrigation since 1860, it showed no signs of famine. There were large reserves of grain in store, and exportation went on briskly towards the centres of distress. Prices of course rose greatly above the average, *joár* being quoted at 12 *sers* the rupee, or 9s. 4d. per cwt.; but no relief works were needed, and no demand for employment existed. As a rule, when grain rises as high as 8 *sers* the rupee, or 14s. per cwt., measures of relief should be adopted. However, as canal irrigation is still advancing, such a necessity will probably never again arise. The communications also are excellent, and amply suffice for all purposes of importation, if the local crops should ever prove insufficient for the wants of the inhabitants.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The chief exports from Bulandshahr are safflower and indigo, but large quantities of cereals are also despatched eastward and westward. The District not only supplies its own needs in the consumption of cotton, but has a surplus of about 36,000 cwts.

available for exportation. There is a flourishing trade in wool down the Ganges from Anúpshahr, and also in country cloth sent upwards from the same town. The manufactures are unimportant, consisting chiefly of *pagris* at Sikandarábád and shoes at Shikárpur. Saltpetre is produced in the crude state at 95 factories, scattered through the country villages. Common salt was formerly made in large quantities, but its manufacture is now prohibited by law. The country trade is carried on at the religious fairs, of which the largest, held at Anúpshahr, attracts about 100,000 people from the surrounding Districts. The main line of the East Indian Railway passes through the whole length of Bulandshahr, with stations at DADRI, SIKANDARABAD, CHOLA, and KHURJA. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway also traverses the south-eastern corner of the District, crossing the Ganges at Rájghát. The roads are in excellent order; and the Ganges, the Jumna, and the canals are all employed as highways for commercial purposes, so that there is no lack of land or water carriage.

Administration.—No statistics as to the public accounts of this District in the early period of British rule can now be recovered, as the records were destroyed during the Mutiny. In 1860-61, the revenue amounted to £222,300, of which £109,866, or nearly one-half, was contributed by the land-tax. In the same year, the expenditure on all items was £102,162, or less than half the revenue. In 1870-71, the receipts had risen to £250,447, of which £124,121, or almost exactly one-half, was the product of the land tax. This increase of revenue is largely due to the benefits derived from canal irrigation. Meanwhile, the expenditure had fallen to £100,163, or two-fifths of the receipts. In 1874, the District was administered by a Magistrate-Collector and two Assistants, a Deputy Collector, four *tahsíldárs*, and a *munsif*. In 1870, there were 18 magisterial and 8 civil courts. The regular police numbered 864 men of all grades in 1871, maintained at a cost of £10,129 per annum; there was thus 1 policeman to every 2·20 square miles and to every 926 inhabitants. This force was supplemented by 2005 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen, whose pay amounted to an estimated sum of £7215 annually. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of persons and property consisted of 2869 men, giving one man to every 326 inhabitants and to every ·66 of a square mile; while the sum expended on their maintenance amounted to £17,344, being an average of 4⅓d. per head of population, or £9, 1s. 11¾d. per square mile of area. These statistics are exclusive of the local police in the municipalities and chief towns. The District contains one jail, the average number of prisoners in which was 964 in 1850, 127 in 1850, and 137 in 1870. In 1860, the persons admitted numbered 1321; in 1870, the number was only 735. In the latter year, the average cost was £4, 19s. 10¼d. per head, and the average earnings of each manufacturing prisoner amounted

to £1, 13s. 5½d. The total number of persons convicted for all offences great or small, in 1873, was 835, being 1 criminal to every 1121 inhabitants. Education has made rapid advances of late years. In 1845, there were only 187 indigenous schools in Bulandshahr, with a total of 1813 pupils. In 1860, the number of schools had risen to 388, while the roll of pupils amounted to 5882, and the sum expended on education to £2334. In 1871, though the number of schools had decreased to 301, the children under instruction reached the total of 6955, and the sum expended had risen to £3177. There are excellent Anglo-vernacular schools at Bulandshahr, Khurja, Dibái, Jewár, Sikandarábád, and Anúpshahr. The District is subdivided into 4 *tahsíls* and 13 *parganás*, with an aggregate, in 1871, of 1893 estates, held by 2645 registered proprietors or coparceners. The average land revenue paid by each estate amounted in that year to £72, 13s. 1½d., and the sum paid by each proprietor to £51, 19s. 11¾d. There are 4 municipalities in the District—namely, Khurja, Bulandshahr, Anúpshahr, and Sikandarábád. In 1875-76, their total income amounted to £5627, and their expenditure to £5212. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 1⅞d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bulandshahr is very variable, being cold in winter and hot in summer, dry during the sultry spring winds, and extremely moist during the autumn rains. No thermometrical observations have been made in the District. The average rainfall was 32·5 inches in 1867-68, 13·9 in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 21·5 in 1869-70, and 32·0 in 1870-71. Malarious fever is the chief endemic disease of Bulandshahr, being especially prevalent during the rainy season. Small-pox and cholera occasionally appear in an epidemic form. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1873 was 30,283, or 32·30 per thousand of the population; and of these, 19,132 deaths were assigned to fever, 6967 to small-pox, and 2326 to bowel-complaints. Charitable dispensaries are established in the towns of Baran, Khurja, Anúpshahr, and Sikandarábád; the average daily attendance at which amounts to 141 patients. The natives thoroughly appreciate the advantages of skilful treatment and a European *materia medica*. During 1870-71 the cattle of the District suffered severely from an outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease, accompanied by rinderpest.

Bulandshahr (or *Baran*).—Municipal town and administrative head-quarters of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 24′ 11″ N., long. 77° 54′ 15″ E.; area, 111 acres; pop. (1872), 14,804 souls, comprising 7897 Hindus, 6894 Musalmáns, and 13 Christians. Lies on the west side of the Káli Nadi, and consists of an upper and a lower town, the former and more ancient portion being situated on the raised bank overhanging the *khádir* or alluvial lowland of the river, while the latter or modern town stretches over the low-lying ground to

the west. Elevation above sea level, 741 feet. Baran is a place of great antiquity, coins of Alexander the Great and the Indo-Bactrian kings of Upper India being found to the present day in and around the town. Hardatta, the Dor Rájá of Baran, bought off the first Muhammadan invader, Mahmúd of Ghazní, by large presents and apostasy to Islám. Chandra Sen, the last Hindu ruler, died while gallantly defending his fort against Muhammad Ghori. Khwája Lál Ali, an officer of the Musalmán army, who fell in the assault, has a handsome tomb still standing in the suburbs, bearing an Arabic inscription. Remains of other early buildings may be recognised, scattered among the modern houses. The tomb of Bahlol Khán, a high officer under the Emperor Akbar, stands just beyond the boundaries; the Jamá Masjíd or great mosque, built from 1730 to 1830, rises above the roofs of the upper town. At the commencement of British rule, Bulandshahr had sunk to the rank of a ruinous village, inhabited chiefly by Lodhás and Chamárs, who lived in mud hovels in the low-lying suburbs; but when the administrative headquarters were fixed at this place, the inhabitants of the neighbouring hamlets flocked to the new station, and Bulandshahr rapidly rose to the dignity of a flourishing and populous town. Among the official buildings are the Magistrate-Collector's office, the court-house, the Ganges Canal office, and the jail. Bulandshahr also contains a *tahsíli* and a *zilá* school, post office, dispensary, and public garden. The civil station lies to the west of the native quarter, and close by stands the English church, erected in 1864. The Church of England Mission has a station in the town. The Lowe Memorial, in memory of a late Collector, adjoins the Magistrate's office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1170; from taxes, £987, or 1s. 4d. per head of population (14,812) within municipal limits.

Bulcherry.—Island on the sea-face of the Sundarbans, Bengal.—*See* BALCHARI.

Buldána.—A District of Berar, lying between 19° 51′ and 21° 1′ 30″ N. lat., and 75° 58′ 45″ and 76° 52′ 45″ E. long. Extreme length from north to south, about 56 miles; average width, 32 miles. Bounded on the north by the river Púrna, on the south by the Nizám's Dominions, on the east by Akola and Básim Districts (Berar), on the west by the Nizám's Dominions and Khandesh (Bombay). Area, 2807 square miles; population, according to the Administration Report of 1876-77, 404,042.

Physical Aspects.—The southern part of the District forms part of Berar Bálághát, or Berar-above-the-Gháts. The geological formation is trap; a succession of plateaux descends from the highest ridges on the north to the south, where a series of small *gháts* march with the Nizám's territory. The small fertile valleys between the plateaux are watered by streams during the greater portion of the year, while wells of particularly good and pure water are numerous. These valleys are favourite village

sites. The north portion of the District occupies the rich valley of the Púrna.

The soil of the undulating highlands in the east of the District is remarkably fine, and the wheat grown here will bear comparison with any produced in India. The PENGANGA river rises about 4 miles above DEULGHAT (Dewalghat), in the north-west corner of the District, and flows south-east, passing Mehkar town, into Básim District. The NALGANGA, the VISWAGANGA, and the GHAN rivers, all rising in or close to the Bálághát, and flowing north into the PURNA river, are either entirely dry in the hot weather or leave only chains of pools. The KATA PURNA enters the District from the west, and, after a course of about 30 miles, passes into the Nizám's territory. None of these rivers are navigable. One of the most remarkable physical features of the District is the lake of LONAR, on the most southerly plateau. The circumference of this lake is 5 miles, and it appears to be the crater of an extinct volcano. The salts which it yields are used for washing and drying chintzes, for which purpose they are exported to considerable distances. A temple on its bank is held in great veneration, and is by far the finest specimen of Hindu architecture in Berar.

The area of unreserved forest in the District is 459 square miles. Though in the ravines of the North Gháts, teak saplings exist in great numbers, no large teak trees are found. *Anjan* trees (Hardwickia binata) are to be found in most of the ravines, and large numbers of *bábul* coppices are scattered about. Many other varieties of fruit and forest trees, some of the latter yielding gums and dyes, flourish throughout the District. Bears, tigers, panthers, hyænas, *sámbhar*, *nílgái*, and wild hog are met with in the hills, and antelope and spotted deer in the valley, which is often visited by wild hog and *nílgái*; black and grey partridge, quail, and waterfowl are among the smaller game to be obtained, and peafowl are found in the hills and on the banks of the Púrna.

History.—The ancient Hemár Panti temples to be seen at Deulghát on the Penganga, at Mehkar in the south-east of the District, at Sindhked in the south-west, at Pimpalgáon in the east, and the temple at the Lonár Lake, all attest a state of society of which they are the only ascertained records. It is popularly believed that the rulers were Jains, when the valley of the Púrna fell under Muhammadan domination. In 1294, Alá-ud-dín, who became Emperor of Delhi in the following year, invaded the Deccan, and established his authority over Ellichpur and its dependencies. He and his successors gradually extended their kingdom southwards; local revolts disturbed, but did not weaken it; and since 1318, Berar has been virtually under Muhammadan rule. About 1437, Alá-ud-dín, son of Ahmad Sháh Báhmani, attacked and routed the allied forces of the King of Khandesh and the Guzerat Prince at Rohankhed, in the north-west of Buldána District; and the site is still shown where,

according to tradition, a great battle was fought. After the Báhmani dynasty came the Imád Sháhís, who ruled from Ellichpur. The Ahmednagar dynasty followed; and in 1596, Chánd Bíbí, Queen Regent of Ahmednagar for her son, formally ceded Berar to the Emperor Akbar, who himself visited the Deccan in 1599. His sons, Prince Murad and Prince Dányál, were successively appointed viceroys. Mehkar in Buldána District became one of the *Sarkárs* (administrative divisions) of the Subah or Imperial Province of Berar. After the death of Akbar (1605), Malik Ambar, the Abyssinian representative of the Nizám Sháhí party at Daulatábád, recovered great part of Berar, which he held till his death in 1628; but Sháh Jahán, assisted by the Deshmukh of Sindhked, Lukji Jádon Ráo, re-established the imperial authority. During the reign of Aurangzeb, about 1671, the Marhattás, under Pratáp Ráo, Sivaji's general, first exacted *chauth*, or one-fourth of the revenue. In 1717, they obtained the formal grant of *chauth* and *sardesh mukhi* from Farrukhsiyyar. In 1724, Chin Khilich Khán, Viceroy of the Deccan under the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, gained a decisive victory over the Imperial forces under Muháriz Khán, at Shakar Khelda (thenceforward called Fatehkhelda, or 'the field of victory'), south of the Penganga in Buldána District. But he could not shake off the Marhattás, who continued to collect revenue for themselves. In 1760, Mehkar was formally ceded to the Peshwá; in 1769, the Nizám was forced to acknowledge himself Vicegerent for the Poona State, and his authority was weakened by the disastrous defeat at Kardla in 1795. Daulat Ráo Sindhia and the Bhonslá of Nágpur were encamped at Malkápur, when they allowed the British Envoy, Colonel Collins, to depart in August 1803. Then followed the Marhattá war,—Assaye, Argaum (Argáon), and other victories scarcely less important,—which before the close of the year crushed the supremacy of the Marhattás. By the partition treaty of 1804, the Nizám received nearly the whole of Berar. General Wellesley, January 1804, mentions Sindhkhed as a nest of thieves, and represents the condition of the country as deplorable. In 1813, two Marhattá plundering chiefs occupied Fatehkhelda for three months. After the Pindári war of 1817-18, the treaty of 1822 conferred on the Nizám the country west of the Wardha, and all claims by the Marhattás were extinguished; but general confusion long continued, and petty battles between *zamíndárs*, rival *tálukdárs*, Rájputs, and Muhammadans took place at Malkápur, which was fairly sacked by the Hindus in 1849. For several years, the Nizám's Government had failed to provide funds for the payment of the force maintained by the British, in accordance with the treaty of 1800. The settlement of these arrears and of other points in dispute was effected by the treaty of 1853, modified in 1860-61, whereby the territory now known as Berar was assigned to the British.

Population.—The Census of 1867 showed a population of 365,779 persons on an area of 2794 square miles, being 131 per square mile. According to the Administration Report of 1876-77, the population is 404,042, on an area of 2807 square miles, thus divided:—Adult males, 131,072; adult females, 125,582; male children under 12 years, 77,601; female children under 12 years, 69,787; total males, 208,673; total females, 195,369. Hindus number 320,302; Muhammadans, 28,289; Buddhists and Jains, 77; aborigines. 55,283. The number of Bráhmans in 1867 was 10,500; of Kunbís, 158,289; of Brinjáras, 11,591; of Mális, 14,424; of Márwáris, 2819; of Banias, 4745; of Rájputs, 3465; and of Dhers, 38,928. The Ands, numbering 7444—who for the most part occupy the hilly country between the tableland of Mehkar and the plain—physically resemble the Gonds, but they have gradually assumed the language and some of the customs of the Kunbís. The Gonds number only 309, chiefly in Mehkar *táluk.* The Kolís (2607) are said to have come from the Western Gháts; they do not intermarry with other castes. The Bhíls (416), who are said to have come from the country between Ahmednagar and Khandesh; and the Kolís live chiefly in Chikli *táluk.* The Lárs, 1777 in number, are generally merchants or bankers, who came from Gulbarga (in the Deccan) and settled at Fatehkhelda, whence they have spread over the District. The descendants of a small band of Bundelá Rájputs, who settled at Fatehkhelda about 150 years ago, now number 317 persons. A sect of Brinjáras, called Naghat, subsist by begging from Brinjári Kunbís only. The origin of the powerful Rájput family of Jádon Desmukhs of Sindhkhed is uncertain, though they are locally reputed to have come from Karwáli in North Hindustán on the Jumna. In 1630, Lukji Jádon Ráo, a commander of 10,000 horse in the time of Málik Ambar, deserted to Sháh Jahán, and turned the fate of the war against his former master. Thereafter the Jádons maintained their allegiance to the Mughal emperors, and obtained honours and titles from Sháh Jahán and Aurangzeb. A daughter of this Lukji Jádon was the mother of Sivají, the founder of the Marhattá power. A force of Arabs, in the service of Báji Ráo, then head of the Jádon family, fought a severe battle with the Haidarábád troops in 1851; for which act of rebellion, though disowned by Báji Ráo, his hereditary estates were confiscated. He himself died a State prisoner in 1856.

A large fair, lasting twenty days, is annually held in October at Deulgáon, in honour of Bálájí. The principal towns in the district are—DEULGAON RAJA (pop. 9296), PIMPALGAON RAJA (14,390), MALKAPUR (7988), DEULGHAT (3954), MEHKAR (3583), FATEHKHELDA (3108). These figures are taken from the Census of 1867; the population of Deulgáon and Malkápur has considerably increased since that year.

Agriculture.—In a seasonable year, a many-coloured sheet of cultiva-

tion, almost without a break, covers the valley of the Púrna. The *rayat* commences preparation of his fields in January; for the surface ploughing must be finished before the intense heat has caked the soil. Sowings for the *kharíf* crop are begun with the first rain in June, and the harvest is gathered in November; the *rabí* crops, sown after the rains, ripen early in March. At this time, the want of labour is much felt, for an unseasonably heavy fall of rain may almost entirely destroy the crops, if not quickly harvested. Rotation of crops is practised; the principle being, that either wheat or gram, or some oil-seed, should intervene between each crop of cotton or *joár*. When the soil is clearly exhausted, it is allowed to lie fallow for a year or two, being manured if manure be obtainable. Deep ploughing is not practised, except to eradicate weeds; for the impression exists that to thoroughly loosen the soil to any depth is injurious. Sugar-cane is planted in December, and matures in twelve months. Guavas and plantains are carefully cultivated, and yams, sweet potatoes, water-melons, and ordinary vegetables flourish in irrigated gardens. Grants-in-aid, to the amount of half the cost, were made to 12 villages in 1876-77, towards water storage. Applications for such grants are now more frequent than was formerly the case, but most of the cultivation is still unirrigated. Good markets are available for agricultural produce, at the stations of the G. I. P. Railway; and the great cotton mart of Khámgáon is only $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile beyond the north-eastern border. The cattle of the District are small, but handsome and active. Full-sized horses are scarce. The number of cows and bullocks in 1876-77, was returned at 235,744; horses, 2281; ponies, 6253; sheep and goats, 79,811. Under native rule, occupancy and payment of revenue were the only titles to land. With the introduction of the Bombay system of survey and settlement, the cultivating revenue-payer has become a proprietor, styled *khútadár*, holding from Government as superior landlord, at a fixed assessment for 30 years—not liable to enhancement on expiry of term, unless on good ground shown. The *khútadár* can sell or mortgage his rights, and also sublet; and he can, if he likes, relinquish his holding at the close of any agricultural year on giving due notice of his intention. The land is often worked by various forms of co-operation, one of which provides a sub-tenant with plough-cattle.

In 1876-77, 1,066,066 acres were under cultivation,—the chief crops being *joár*, 333,224; cotton, 281,646; wheat, 146,167; bájra, 90,147; gram, 44,124; linseed, 31,557; safflower (Carthamus tinctorius), 39,904; sugar-cane, 2058; *tíl*, 19,405. The unpaid land revenue for 1876-77, was only £22, 6s. on a gross demand of £95,504. The rent rates per acre are—for land fit for cotton, 1s. $6\frac{1}{2}$d.; wheat, 1s. 7d.; oil-seeds, 1s. 6d.; *joár*, 1s. 7d.; tobacco, 2s. 3d.; opium, 5s.; rice, 1s. 11d.; gram, 1s. 6d. The prices (1876-77)—for clean cotton, $2\frac{1}{8}$ *sers* per rupee

(about £2, 10s. per cwt.); wheat, 13½ *sers* per rupee (8s. 3½d. per cwt.); gram and *joár*, 17 *sers* per rupee (6s. 7d. per cwt.); oil-seeds, 11 *sers* per rupee (10s. 2d. per cwt.); tobacco, 4 *sers* per rupee (£1, 8s. per cwt.). Plough-bullocks cost £3, 16s. each; buffaloes, £4; sheep, 4s. 6d. each. The rate of wages for skilled labour is 1s. 2½d. a day; for unskilled labour, 4d.

Natural Calamities. — Famines have not unfrequently visited the tract of which Buldána District forms part. In 1803, a great famine occurred, from which Mehkar suffered very severely. Drought and blight affect the crops, and unseasonable rain when the spring crops are standing is sometimes very injurious.

Manufactures and Trade.—Coarse cotton cloth is commonly woven. Before the introduction of Manchester piece-goods, and the high price of cotton, Mehkar was famous for its *dhotis.* In 1876-77, the number of workers in silk was returned at 144; in cotton, 1729; in wool, 1447; in wood, 1208; in iron, 659; and 94 in brass and copper; miscellaneous, 913. Steel of fair quality is forged at Deulghát. Weekly markets, some of them very large, are held in several towns and villages. The chief imports are—piece-goods, hardware, metals, spices, salt; exports—cotton, wheat, oil-seeds, and cattle. The principal fairs and *bázárs* are held at Deulgáon Rájá, Mehkar, Fatehkhelda, Chikli, Dongáon, Selgáon, Lonár, Deulghát, Nándúra, Malkápur.

Roads and Railways.—There are in Buldána 219½ miles of made roads. The G. I. P. Railway passes through the north portion of the District, from west to east, for 29 miles, having stations at Malkápur, Bíswa Bridge, and Nándúra. There are *seráis* for native travellers at these stations, and rest-houses for Europeans at Malkápur and Nándúra.

Administration.—The gross land revenue of Buldána is returned at £104,559; total gross revenue, £125,584. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner and Assistants, European and native. An Assistant Commissioner holds his court at Malkápur. There are 3 revenue Subdivisions. The police, 449 officers and men, assisted by rural police, are under a European District Superintendent. There is one receiving jail; total daily average of inmates in 1876, 25·68. Cost per head yearly, £13, 12s. 6d. on average strength. The cost of food does not exceed that at the central jail, but the charges for establishment are necessarily much higher in proportion. The proportion of Muhammadan convicts to Muhammadans in the District is more than double that of any other class—a fact which may be attributable to their forming a larger proportionate number of the town population. There were 3 murders, 1 attempt at murder, 3 dacoities without murder, and 10 robberies in 1876-77. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in the same year was 149, having 5117 scholars. The Central Book Depôt of the Province supplies works in Marathí, English, Sanskrit,

Persian, and Urdú. The vernacular tongues are Marathí and Urdú. No newspaper is printed in the District; and no municipality under Act iv. of 1873 has yet been constituted.

Meteorological and Medical Aspects.—In the north portion of the District, strong and very hot westerly winds prevail from the middle of February till rain falls early in June, and, excepting just about daybreak, they continue throughout the twenty-four hours. In the rainy season, and from October to February, the mornings and nights are pleasantly cool, but the heat in the day is still great. In the Bálághát or south portion of the District, the hot weather is not excessive; the temperature of the rainy season is pleasant; and the cold weather of about three months is most enjoyable, but the great dryness of the air at that time is trying to some constitutions. Highest shade temperature at Buldána in May (1876), 105° F.; lowest in December, 59° F. The rainfall in 1876 was 25·11 inches, of which 25·05 inches fell from June to September. The principal diseases are fevers, bowel-complaints, small-pox, and affections of the skin and eyes. Ratio of reported deaths per 1000 of population, 25·8. In 1876, 4 dispensaries and 1 civil hospital afforded medical relief to 13,882 patients; and the number of persons vaccinated by the vaccine department, and at the dispensaries, was 11,373.

Bulsár (*Balsár, Walsád, Valsád*).—Port and municipal town in Surat District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 36′ 30″ N., long. 72° 58′ 40″ E., about 40 miles south of Surat and 115 north of Bombay, on the estuary of the navigable though small river Auranga; station on the railway between Surat and Bombay. Pop. (1872), 11,313, of whom 8349 are Hindus, 2212 Musalmáns, 738 Pársis, and 14 Christians. Of the Musalmáns, the greater number are Táis, or converted Hindus; they are engaged chiefly in cloth-weaving, and are as a rule well-to-do. Municipal income in 1874-75, £1932, or 3s. 5d. per head of the total population. Bulsár is well placed for trade both by sea and by land. The total value of its sea trade in 1874-75 was £84,905, of which £78,637 represented the value of exports, and £6268 that of imports. The railway returns show an increase of late in the traffic at Bulsár. The total tonnage of goods taken to and from the station rose from 4150 in 1868 to 4288 in 1874, and the number of passengers from 91,042 to 101,014. Chief imports—piece-goods, tobacco, wheat, fish, and sugar; exports—timber, grain, molasses, oil, firewood, and tiles. Its export of timber is the staple of Bulsár trade. The wood brought from the Dang forests is exported by sea to Dholera, Bháunagar, and the other ports of Káthiáwár. Manufactures of Bulsár are cloth for wearing apparel and for sails, silk for women's robes, and bricks, tiles, and pottery. Besides the ordinary subdivisional revenue and police offices, the town has a subordinate judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Bulti (*Balti* or *Baltistán*).—Native State, the name given to the northern part of KASHMIR (Cashmere). Lat. 34° to 36° N., long. 75° to 79° E.

Bul-Tul (or *Kantal*; also called *Shur-ji-la*).—A pass over the range of mountains bounding the Kashmir valley on the north-east. Lat. 34° 14′ N., long. 75° 33′ E. Forms the water-summit between Kashmir (Cashmere) and Little Thibet; elevation above sea level, 10,500 feet.

Bundála.—Town in Amritsar District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 32′ N., long. 75° 1′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 5287, comprising 2008 Sikhs, 1438 Muhammadans, 790 Hindus, and 1051 'others.' Distant from Amritsar city, 9 miles south-east. Of little commercial importance; chiefly noticeable for its large Síkh population.

Bundare.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras. This is one of the chief Kandh villages, and was formerly a stronghold of the practice of human sacrifice known as Meriah or Junna. The ceremony, as performed at Bundare up to 1849, consisted in the sacrifice of three human beings,—two to the sun, in the east and west of the village, and one in the centre. A short wooden post having been fixed in the ground, the victim was fastened to it by his long hair, and held out by his legs and arms over a grave dug at the foot of the post. While in this position, the priest hacked the back of the victim's neck with the sacrificial knife, repeating as he did so the following invocation:—'O mighty Maniksoro, this is your festal day! The sacrifice we now offer, you must eat; and we pray that our battle-axes may be converted into swords, our bows and arrows into gun-powder and bullets; and if we have any quarrels with other tribes, give us the victory. Preserve us from the tyranny of kings and their officers.' Then addressing the victim: 'That we may enjoy prosperity, we offer you as a sacrifice to our god Maniksoro, who will immediately eat you; so be not grieved at our slaying you. Your parents were aware, when we purchased you from them for 60 rupees, that we did so with intent to sacrifice you; there is therefore no sin on our heads, but on your parents. After you are dead we shall perform your obsequies.' The victim was then decapitated, the body thrown into the grave, and the head left suspended from the post till devoured by birds. The knife remained fixed to the post till all three sacrifices were performed, when it was removed with much ceremony.

Bundelkhand.—Tract of country which may be defined as lying between the river Jumna (Jamuná) on the north, the Chambal on the north and west, the Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Ságar (Saugor) Divisions of the Central Provinces on the south, and Rewah or Bághelkhand and the Mírzápur Hills on the south and east. Its limits stretch from 23° 52′ to 26° 26′ N. lat., and from 77° 53′ to 81° 39′ E. long. It comprises the British Districts of Hamírpur, Jálaun, Jhánsi, Lálitpur, and Bánda

the treaty States of Orchha (or Tehri), Datia, and Samthar; and the following States held under *sanads* and grants from the British Government:—Ajáigarh, Alípura; the Hashtbháya *Jágírs* of Dhurwái, Bíjna Tori Fatehpur, and Pahári Bánka; Baraunda, Báoni, Beri, Bíhát, Bijáwar, Charkhári; the Kálinjar Chowbeys, viz. Paldeo Pahra, Taráon, Bháisaunda, and Kámta Rajaula; Chhattarpur, Garrauli, Gaurihar, Jáso, Jígni, Khaniádhána Lughási, Naigawán Ribái, Panna, and Saríla,—all of which see separately.

Physical Aspect.—The plains of Bundelkhand are diversified by a series of mountains and hills, classed by Franklin in his *Memoir on the Geology of Bundelkhand* in three ranges—the Bindáchal, the Panna, and the Bandair. The first of these, which nowhere exceeds 2000 feet above sea level, commences near Sihonda on the river Sindh, proceeds south-west to Narwár, thence south-east and afterwards north-west to Ajáigarh and Kálinjar, and farther east to Bardarh near the railway between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Allahábád. The plateau which lies behind this range averages 10 or 12 miles in width. The base and lower parts of the hills are of primary formation, chiefly granite and syenite, commonly overlaid by sandstone, but in many cases by trap and formations of volcanic origin. The second range, styled the Panna range, rises to the south of the plateau just described. The summit is a table-land, slightly undulating, with a breadth of about 10 miles, and having an average elevation above the sea, between the Katra Pass and Lohárgáon, of 1050 feet, and between Lohárgáon and the foot of the hills near Pathariya, of about 1200 feet. Where deep ravines allow examination of the formation, the primary rocks are found to be covered by an enormously thick bed of sandstone, which is itself in some places overlaid by rocks of volcanic origin. South-west of this last range, and separated from it by the valley or elongated basin of Lohárgáon is the third or Bandair range, the plateau of which has an average elevation of about 1700 feet above the sea, and on some of the undulations as much as 2000. The Bandair range is generally of sandstone mixed with ferruginous gravel. The extensive basin of Lohárgáon intervening between these ranges is of lias limestone. The limits of the hilly tract where it bounds the plain are marked by the occurrence of abrupt isolated hills, generally of granitic base, surmounted by sandstone and trap, which, from their steep and nearly inaccessible scarps, form, as in the instances of Kálinjar and Ajáigarh, strongholds which have often enabled the hillmen of Bundelkhand to set at defiance the great Empires of India. From these hills numerous streams flow towards the Jumna; among which are the Sindh with its tributary the Pahúj, the Betwa, the Dhásan, the Bírma, the Ken, the Bágain, the Páisuni, and the Tons. All these flow in a general north-easterly direction. The only one of them useful for navigation is the KEN, which, during the

rainy season only, is navigable as far as Bánda, a distance of 60 miles. Notwithstanding the numerous streams which traverse the country, the great depth of the channels in the plains, and the thirsty nature of the soil among the hills, render irrigation highly important; and to supply means for it, a great number of *jhíls*, or small lakes, have been constructed by embanking the lower extremities of valleys.

The mineral resources of Bundelkhand appear very great. Diamonds are found in Panna, but the yield is small and precarious. In the central tracts there is excellent iron, but at present its production is limited by the supply of charcoal, and even now the jungles in the iron Districts are cleared off faster than they can be renewed. When science has taught how the metal can be extracted with sufficient economy of fuel, Bundelkhand iron and steel will doubtless find a market far beyond the present limits of Gwalior, Háthras, Lucknow, and Cawnpore. A small copper mine has been recently worked in Lálitpur.

Agriculture.—Except where hill or jungle predominate, as in several of the Native States, the Province is almost solely agricultural. Much of the soil in the Native States is very poor, being chiefly on the hill ranges mentioned above; but the soil of the plains consists mostly of the 'black cotton soil,' which, notwithstanding its dried appearance in hot weather, has the peculiar property of retaining moisture to a marked degree, and yields in favourable seasons luxuriant crops of cotton and cereals. The principal crops are—*al* (Morinda citrifolia), which yields the dye used in colouring the reddish-brown cloths known as *kharuá; joár* (Sorghum vulgare); *bájra* (Penicillaria spicata); *til* (Sesamum orientale); and the millets and pulses known as *kangni*, *kutki*, *sámán*, *arhar*, *moth*, *másh*, *masúri*, *khesari*, etc. The *singhára*, or water-caltrop, is largely grown in Hamírpur; and throughout Bundelkhand the *mahuá* tree (Bassia latifolia) is cultivated for its flowers and fruit as well as for its timber.

In Orchha, and throughout the greater part of the whole country, the prevailing plan of land settlement is the native system—under which the State, while recognising in every village a head-man with certain advantages, yet keeps the property of the soil in its own hands, acts as banker and seed-lender for the cultivators, and generally fixes its demand for revenue in proportion to produce or area cultivated.

The British Districts are included within the North-Western Provinces. The political superintendence of the Native States is vested in the Bundelkhand Agency, subordinate to the Central India Agency, reporting to the Government of India. The railway from Jabalpur to Allahábád now creates a demand for various local products for about 100 miles from the line, and through its means connections with the Bombay trade are springing up; when the connecting country roads are completed, much improvement may be expected. The climate in the

plains is frequently sultry, and the heat is great. The prevailing wind from October to May is south-west, that is, up the Gangetic valley; during the other months the wind frequently comes down the valley.

At Nowgong a British garrison is stationed, consisting of 1 battery of artillery, 2 companies of British infantry, 2 squadrons of Native cavalry, and a wing of a Native infantry regiment. The Bundelkhand Ráj-kúmar College is established near Nowgong for the education of the sons of chiefs; in 1875-76, twenty-seven youths of noble family were being educated there.

History.—According to local tradition, the Gonds were the earliest colonists of Bundelkhand. To them succeeded the Chandel Rájputs, under whose supremacy the great irrigation works of Hamirpur District, the forts of Kálinjar and Ajáigarh, and the noble temples of Kha-juráhu and Máhoba, were constructed. The whole Province contains ruins, large tanks, and magnificent temples, built chiefly of hewn granite and carved sandstone, which are supposed to date back to this epoch. Ferishta relates that in the year 1021 A.D., the Chandel Rájá marched at the head of 36,000 horse, 45,000 foot, and 640 elephants, to oppose Mahmúd of Ghazní, whom, however, he was obliged to conciliate with rich presents. In the year 1183, Parmal Deo, the twentieth ruler in succession from Chandra Varma, the founder of the dynasty, was de-feated by Prithvi Rájá, ruler of Ajmere and Delhi. After the overthrow of Parmal Deo, the country was exposed to anarchy and to Muham-madan invasions until the close of the 14th century, when the Bundelas, a subdivision of the Garhwa tribe of Rájputs, established themselves on the right bank of the Jumna. They appear to have settled first at Mau, and then, after taking Kálinjar and Kálpi, to have made Máhoni their capital. About 1531, Rája Rudra Pratáp founded the city of Orchha, and greatly consolidated and extended the kingdom. The Bundelas became the most powerful among the tribes west of the Jumna; and from this time the name of Bundelkhand may with justice be given to the whole tract of country. Shortly afterwards the power of the Muhammadans began to grow threatening; and Bír Sinh Deo, the great-grandson of the founder of Orchha, was compelled to acknow-ledge himself a vassal of the Mughal Empire. Champat Rái, however, another chief of the Bundela tribe, held out in the rugged countries bordering on the Betwa, and harassed the Muhammadans by his rapid predatory forays. The son of Champat Rái, Chattar Sál, continued his father's career with greater eventual success; and, being elected principal leader and chief of the Bundelas, commenced operations by the reduction of the forts in the hills towards Panna. He wasted the country held by his enemies in every direction, and avoiding a general action, managed by ambuscades, aided by his intimate knowledge of the country, to cut off or elude the Imperial troops. He captured

Kálinjar, and, making that his stronghold, acquired authority over territory yielding nearly a million sterling per annum. In 1734, however, he was so hard pressed by Ahmad Khán Bangash, the Pathán chief of Farrukhábád, that he was forced to seek aid from the Marhattás. The Peshwá, Báji Ráo, promptly embraced this opportunity of establishing his ascendancy in Bundelkhand; he surprised and defeated Ahmad Khán, and rescued the Bundela Rájá from his perilous position. He was rewarded by a fort and District in the neighbourhood of Jhánsi, and by a grant of the third part of Eastern Bundelkhand. The Peshwá made over his portion, subject to a moderate tribute, to a Bráhman called Kási Pandit, whose descendants held it until it lapsed to the East India Company. About the same time, Jhánsi was wrested by the Peshwá from the Rájá of Orchha, and entrusted to a *subáhdár*, whose descendant retained it till a recent date. The two remaining shares of the possessions of Chattar Sál continued to be held in small portions by the numerous descendants of his legitimate sons, or by the nominal adherents and rebellious servants of the declining branches of the family. The anarchy and petty wars thus ensuing made an opening for Alí Bahádur (a grandson of Báji Ráo by a Muhammadan concubine), who had quarrelled with Madhojí Sindhia, whose troops he had formerly led. After a long and severe contest, he succeeded in establishing his authority over the greater part of the Province. The chief resistance he met with was at Kálinjar, at the siege of which place he died, in 1802, after having concluded an arrangement with the Court of Poona, by which the sovereign and paramount right of the Peshwá over all his conquests in Bundelkhand was declared and acknowledged. Rájá Himmat Bahádur, the spiritual head and military commander of a large body of devotees, who had great influence in the District, professed at first his intention of supporting the right of Shamsher Bahádur, the son of Alí Bahádur, who happened to be absent in Poona at the time of his father's death. About this time the declared hostility of the subordinate chiefs of the Marhattá empire to the arrangements of the treaty of Bassein—by which, among other advantages, the British Government acquired territory in Bundelkhand yielding £361,600 a year—occasioned a formal declaration on the part of the British Government of their intention of maintaining the provisions of that treaty; and this declaration was immediately followed by offensive operations on the part of Sindhia and the Rájá of Berar, and equally hostile, though more secret, measures of aggression on the part of Holkár. Part of the Marhattá plan of operations was a predatory incursion into British territory from Bundelkhand, to be headed by Shamsher Bahádur. Rájá Himmat Bahádur, foreseeing in the success of this scheme a diminution of his own authority in Bundelkhand, determined to abandon the Marhattá interest, and to seek his own personal

aggrandizement by assisting in the transfer of the Province to the British. An agreement was consequently made, by which the Rájá was granted a tract of territory yielding 20 *lákhs* of rupees (say £200,000) for the maintenance of a body of troops in the service of the British Government, as well as a *jágir* in consideration of his co-operation in the establishment of British authority in Bundelkhand. The British Government were thus enabled easily to bring a force into Bundelkhand for the decision of the contest, while Himmat Bahádur received territory more than double the area of his original possessions. These lands were resumed on his death, and *jágirs* and pensions assigned to his family. Shamsher Bahádur was quickly defeated by a force under Col. Powell, assisted by the troops of Himmat Bahádur; and he was content to accept a provision of 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000) a year from the British Government, with permission to reside at Bánda. On his death in 1823, he was succeeded by his brother Zulfikár Alí. To him succeeded Alí Bahádur, who joined in the rebellion of 1857, and was therefore deprived of the pension of 4 *lákhs* a year, and placed under surveillance at Indore. He died in 1873, and pensions amounting to £120 were assigned to his family. Of the territory ceded by the Peshwá, the British Government retained in its own possession lands on the banks of the Jumna, yielding about 14 *lákhs* of rupees (£140,000), exclusive of the territory granted to Himmat Bahádur. On the extinction of the Peshwá's independence in 1818, all his sovereign rights in Bundelkhand were finally ceded to the British. Of the Bundelkhand States, Jálaun Jhánsi, Jáitpur, and Khaddi lapsed to the Government; and Chirgáon and Poona, two of the Kálinjar Chowbeys (or shares held in the Kálinjar District by representatives of the Chowbey family), Bijerághogarh, and Tiroha have been confiscated. The States of Sháhgarh and Bánpur were also confiscated on account of the rebellion of the chiefs in 1857. Bánpur was claimed by Sindhia as forming part of the Chanderi District conquered by the Gwalior Darbár in 1831. The claim was not admitted, but the Bánpur territory was made over to Sindhia under arrangements connected with the treaty of 1860.

Out of 30 States in Bundelkhand of more or less importance, only Orchha or Tehri, Datia, and Samthar have formal treaties with the British Government. The other chiefs hold their territories under *sanads*, and are bound by *ikrarnámas* or deeds of fealty and obedience. The areas and populations of the existing British Districts, according to the Census of 1872, are as follows:—Bánda, area, 3030 square miles; pop. 697,611: Hamírpur, area, 2288 square miles; pop. 529,137: Jálaun, area, 1553 square miles; pop. 404,384: Jhánsi, area, 1566 square miles; pop. 317,735: Lálitpur, area, 1947 square miles; pop. 212,628. The estimated areas and populations of the three Treaty States are as

follows:—Orchha, area, 2014 square miles; pop. 200,000: Datia, area, 850 square miles; pop. 180,000: and Samthar, area, 173 square miles; pop. 30,000. The dialect in common use is known as Bundelkhandi. For further particulars, see the various Districts and States in detail.

Búndi (*Boondee*).—Native State of Rájputána, in political relation with the Government of India, lying between 24° 58′ and 25° 55′ N. lat., and between 75° 23′ and 76° 30′ E. long. The first Rájá with whom the British Government had any intercourse was Omeda, who gave most efficient assistance to Colonel Monson's army during his retreat before Holkár in 1804, bringing down on himself the vengeance of Holkár in consequence. The territory of Búndi was so situated as to be of great importance during the war of 1817, in cutting off the retreat of the Pindárís; the Búndi troops co-operated heartily with the British. The Rájá was rewarded by a part of Patner, Holkár's rights over the latter being commuted into an annual payment of £3000 made by the British Government to him. In 1844, Sindhia transferred his two-thirds of Patner to the British, as part of the territories ceded in trust for the support of the Contingent; and an agreement was made by which they were handed over to Búndi on payment of £8000 a year. The Rájá proving uncertain during the Mutiny of 1857, friendly intercourse with him was broken off, and not resumed till 1860. The chief or Maháráo of Búndi is a Chauhán Rájput; he is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. The position of Búndi is that of a protected State acknowledging the supremacy of the British Government. The Rájá is absolute ruler in his own dominions. Estimated area, 2300 square miles; a large portion rocky and sterile. Estimated population in 1875, 224,000; revenue in the same year, £80,000. Búndi pays a tribute of £12,000 to the British Government. The military force consists of 700 horse, 1375 infantry, 18 field and 70 other guns.

Búndi.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Rájputána, and the residence of the Rájá; situated in a gorge in a range of hills. Lat. 25° 27′ N., long. 75° 40′ 37″ E. The palace is a striking pile of buildings, rising tier above tier on the side of the gorge, and is said to be unsurpassed in Rájputána.

Bunhár.—Hill river in Jhelum (Jhilam) District, Punjab. Receives the whole drainage from the eastern portion of the Dhanni country north of the Salt Range; finds its way through a break in the upper or Diljabba spur, passes on through the Gora Galli Pass between the Tilla and Garjak Hills, and finally empties itself into the Jhelum river, about a mile above Dárapur. After a heavy fall of rain, the Bunhár becomes a roaring torrent, impassable for many hours. Its bed below the Gora Galli stretches upwards of a mile in breadth.

Burábalang ('*Old Twister*').—A river of Orissa; rises among the hills of Morbhanj State, in lat. 21° 52′ 45″ N., and long. 86° 30′ 0″ E., and

after receiving two tributaries, the Gangáhar and the Sunái, passes through Balasor District and flows into the sea, in lat. 21° 28′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 6′ 0″ E. The river takes its name from its snake-like course. The tide runs up 23 miles. In the upper reaches, the banks of the river are sandy, steep, and cultivated. In the lower part, they are of firm mud, covered to high-water mark with black slime, and bordered by jungle or open grassy plains. The Burábalang is navigable by brigs, sloops, and sea-going steamers as far as BALASOR town, about 16 miles up its winding course. A sandbar across the mouth renders the entrance difficult for shipping. (*See* BALASOR DISTRICT.)

Burá Dharlá (or *Nílkumár*).—A tributary of the DHARLA river, in Rangpur District, Bengal. The name would seem to imply that this was at one period a channel of the Dharlá.

Burá Mantreswar.—A name sometimes given to the mouth of the HUGLI river, Bengal.

Burá Tístá.—An old channel of the TISTA river, Bengal.

Burghur.—A range of hills in Coimbatore District, Madras; average height, 2500 feet above the sea; highest point, 5000 feet. Lat. 11° 49′ N., long. 77° 36′ E. In length about 30 miles, with a long narrow plateau watered by the river of the same name, ending in the Burghur Pass leading into Mysore.

Burghur.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras. Situated in a depression in the hills to which it gives its name. Formerly very secluded, but now on the line of road which communicates with the railway at Erode, about 45 miles distant.

Burghur.—River in Coimbatore District, Madras. After flowing through the plateau of the Burghur range (*vide supra*), it joins the Káveri (Cauvery).

Búrha.—Revenue Subdivision or *tahsíl* in Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 134,803; number of villages or townships, 449—of houses, 25,528; area, 1340 square miles; land revenue, £6008; total revenue, £6329.

Búrha.—Town and administrative headquarters of Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 48′ 30″ N., long. 80° 14′ E. Situated on high and dry soil, about 10 miles north of Hatta, and 1 mile from the Wáinganga river. Pop. (1866), 1206, chiefly agricultural. On the north-east and south sides large mango groves shelter the town.

Burhánpur.—Revenue Subdivision or *tahsíl* in Nimár District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 4′ 15″ and 21° 37′ 15″ N. lat., and between 75° 59′ 15″ and 76° 50′ E. long. Pop. (1872), 72,254, dwelling in 137 villages or townships and 15,829 houses; area, 1138 square miles; land revenue, £6172; total revenue, £6472.

Burhánpur.—Town in Nimár District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 18′ 33″ N., long. 76° 16′ 26″ E. On the north bank of the

river Táptí, about 40 miles south by west from Khandwa, and 2 miles from the Great Indian Peninsular Railway Station of Lálbágh. Population (1877), 29,303. It was founded about 1400 A.D. by Nasír Khán, the first independent prince of the Farrukhí dynasty of Khandesh, and called by him after the famous Shaikh Burhán-ud-dín of Daulatábád. Though the rival Muhammadan princes of the Deccan repeatedly sacked the place, eleven princes of the Farrukhi dynasty held Burhánpur down to the annexation of their kingdom by the Emperor Akbar in 1600. The earlier Farrukhís have left no monument except a couple of rude minarets in the citadel, called the Bádsháh Kilá; but the twelfth of the line, Alí Khán, considerably improved the city, and built the handsome Jamá Masjíd, still in excellent preservation. Under Akbar and his successor, Burhánpur was greatly embellished. In the *Ain-i-Akbari* it is described as a 'large city with many gardens, in some of which is found sandal-wood; inhabited by people of all nations, and abounding with handicraftsmen. In the summer the town is covered with dust, and during the rains the streets are full of mud and stone.' Burhánpur formed the seat of government of the Deccan princes of the Empire till 1635, when Aurangábád took its place. After this event, Burhánpur became the capital of the large *súbah* of Khandesh, usually governed by a prince of the royal blood. The transfer had not occurred at the time when Sir Thomas Roe, Ambassador in 1614 from James I. to the Great Mughal, paid his visit to Prince Parviz, son of Jahángir, the governor, which he thus describes: 'The *cutwall*, an officer of the king so called, met me well attended, with sixteen colours carried before him, and conducted me to the seraglio where I was appointed to lodge. He took his leave at the gate, which made a handsome front of stone; but, when in, I had four chambers allotted to me, like ovens and no bigger, round at the top, made of bricks in the side of a wall, so that I lay in my tent, the *cutwall* making his excuse that it was the best lodging in the town, as I found it was, all the place being only mud cottages, except the prince's house, the *chan's*, and some few others. I was conducted by the *cutwall* to visit the prince, in whose outward court I found about a hundred gentlemen on horseback waiting to salute him on his coming out. He sat high in a gallery that went round, with a canopy over him and a carpet before him. An officer told me as I approached that I must touch the ground with my head bare, which I refused, and went on to a place right under him railed in, with an ascent of three steps, where I made him reverence, and he bowed his body; so I went within, where were all the great men of the town, with their hands before them like slaves. The place was covered overhead with a rich canopy, and under foot all with carpets. It was like a great stage, and the prince sat at the upper end of it. Having no place assigned, I stood right before

him; he refusing to admit me to come up the steps, or to allow me a chair. Having received my present, he offered to go into another room, where I should be allowed to sit; but by the way he made himself drunk out of a case of bottles I gave him, and so the visit ended.' Forty-four years after Sir Thomas Roe's visit, Tavernier described Burhánpur (or, as he wrote it, Brampour), through which he then passed for the second time, as 'a great city, very much ruined, the houses being for the most part thatched with straw.' He adds: 'There is also a great castle in the midst of the city, where the governor lives. The government of this Province is a very considerable command, only conferred upon the son or uncle of the king. There is a great trade in this city, and as well in Brampour as over all the Province. There is made a prodigious quantity of calicuts, very clear and white, which are transported into Persia, Turkey, and Muscovia, Poland, Arabia, to Grand Cairo, and other places.' The remains of mosques and other buildings show that, at the height of its prosperity under the Mughals, Burhánpur extended over an area of about 5 square miles. A skilfully constructed system of aqueducts supplied it with abundance of pure water. Eight sets may still be traced, two of which were channels led off from running streams, partly under and partly above ground. The other six consisted of a number of wells, connected by a subterranean gallery, and so arranged as to intercept the water percolating from the neighbouring hills. The supply thus obtained passes by a masonry adit pipe to its destination in the city or suburbs. All these channels, where they run underground, are furnished at short intervals with tall hollow columns of masonry rising to the level of the water at the source of the works, the object of which seems uncertain.

Burhánpur played an important part in the wars of the Empire, particularly in the reign of Aurangzeb. In 1685, that prince had hardly left the city with a large army to subjugate the Deccan when the Marhattás took the opportunity to plunder the place. Thirty-four years later, after repeated battles in the neighbourhood, the demand of the Marhattás for the *chauth*, or one-fourth of the revenue, was formally conceded. In 1720, Asaf Jáh Nizám-ul-Múlk seized the government of the Deccan, and resided chiefly at Burhánpur, where he died in 1748. By this time the population of the city had greatly diminished; and the brick wall with bastions and nine gateways, erected in 1731, enclosed an area of little more than 1¼ square mile. In 1760, after the battle of Udgí, the Nizám ceded Burhánpur to the Peshwá, who, eighteen years later, transferred it to Sindhia. In 1803, the city was taken by General Wellesley; but it was not until 1860 that, in consequence of a territorial arrangement with Sindhia, Burhánpur came permanently under British government. In 1849, the town was the scene of a desperate and

sanguinary affray between Muhammadans and Hindus on the occasion of a Hindu festival. The chief buildings in Burhánpur are a brick palace built by Akbar, called the *Lál Kilá*, or Red Fort, and the Jamá Masjíd, or great mosque, built by Aurangzeb. The *Lál Kilá*, though much dilapidated, still contains some fine apartments, and other relics of imperial magnificence. It was formerly shut off from the town by a rampart. The muslin, silk, and brocade manufactures of Burhánpur were once very famous, and still exist. But the city has long been declining. English fabrics have displaced the 'clear and white calicuts' mentioned by Tavernier; and now the local industry is confined to the manufacture of fine cotton and silk fabrics, interwoven with the gold-plated silver-thread drawn in the city (the purity of which is tested by Government inspection), and of such coarser cotton goods as Manchester has failed to supplant. But the demand for the finer fabrics of gold and silk, and for the best qualities of cloth, has greatly fallen off ever since the luxurious Muhammadan princes gave place to the rude Marhattás. The removal from Burhánpur of the seat of native government greatly injured the trade of the place; and since the construction of the railway, Burhánpur has ceased to be an entrepôt for the traffic between Malwá, the Upper Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and the Deccan. The city has a post office, and a travellers' bungalow near the railway station at Lálbágh, a park 2 miles north of the town. An Assistant Commissioner and *tahsíldár* reside at Burhánpur.

Búrhapára.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh. In shape a rough equilateral triangle, with its apex to the north; bounded on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the south by Babhnipáir, and on the west by Sádullápur *parganá*. Originally a portion of the Kalháns *ráj*, for history of which see GONDA DISTRICT. Afterwards conquered by the Pathán, Alí Khán, who established Utráula, and whose descendants still hold a $\frac{2}{5}$th share of this *parganá*. The remaining $\frac{3}{5}$th share, which was also held by a Muhammadan of the same family, was confiscated for disloyalty during the Mutiny, and bestowed as a reward for good service upon Bhaya Haratan Sinh, who is now the principal *tálukdár*. The centre of the *parganá* is a well-cultivated plain, thickly inhabited, but with no distinctive natural features beyond numerous clumps of fine *mahuá* trees, which give a pleasant park-like appearance to the landscape. To the north-west and south, the cultivated plain is bounded by a belt of forest, abounding in game, but yielding every year to the axe and the plough. Total area, 77¾ square miles, or 49,688 acres, of which 24,930 acres are cultivated. Excluding forest, the revenue-yielding tract comprises an area of 30,303 acres, of which 18,877 acres are cultivated. Autumn crops—rice and *kodo;* spring crops—wheat, gram, *alsi*, peas,

poppy. Government land revenue demand, under the 30 years' settlement, is gradually progressive from £1756 in 1873-74 to £2695 at the end of the term. Average incidence per acre of assessed land (excluding forest grants)—in 1873-74, 1s. 10½d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 1½d. per acre of total area; in 1903-4, 2s. 10½d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 9d. per acre of total area. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 15,640; Muhammadans, 4797; total, 20,541, viz. 10,804 males and 9737 females. Number of villages, 128; average density of population, 263 per square mile. The most numerous castes among Hindus are the Ahírs and Chamárs, the Bráhmans being fewest. The aboriginal Bhars, at one time the rulers of an extensive kingdom, who have entirely disappeared in other parts, are still found here. They follow a nomadic system of forest cultivation, wandering from jungle to jungle. Their abandoned clearings are quickly taken possession of by more careful cultivators, such as Kurmís and Ahírs. The villages are connected by rough cart tracks, and the rivers crossed at intervals by fords. Principal export—rice; imports—salt and cotton, both raw and manufactured.

Burhee.—Village in Hazáribágh District, Bengal.—*See* BARHI.

Burí Dihing.—River of Assam, which rises among the unexplored mountains to the extreme east of the Province, and flows generally with a westerly course into the Brahmaputra. For some distance it forms the southern frontier of Lakhimpur District, then it crosses that District, and finally forms the boundary between the Districts of Lakhimpur and Síbságar for a few miles above its confluence with the Great River. It is comparatively useless for purposes of navigation. In the rainy season its channel becomes so overgrown with grass, etc., as to be with difficulty penetrated by steamers; while during the rest of the year it dwindles to a very shallow stream, with dangerous rapids. The chief places on its banks are Jáipur and Khowang, both in Lakhimpur District. In the hills above JAIPUR there is much mineral wealth of coal, iron, and petroleum, which would attract European enterprise if only the Burí Dihing were less difficult of navigation.

Burí Gandak.—River of Bengal; rises in the Sumeswar range of hills close to the Harhá Pass, and flows from north-west to south-east through the Districts of Champáran, Muzaffarpur, and Darbhangah, pouring its waters into the Ganges in Monghyr District. At its source it is called the Harhá; in *tappás* Bahás and Madhwál, in Champáran, it becomes the Sikhrená; in *parganás* Simráon and Mihsi, the Burí Gandak or Muzaffarpur river; and, as it approaches Muzaffarpur District, the Chhotá Gandak. Except in the upper reach (called the Harhá) it is navigable throughout the rains; but in the dry season sandbanks render navigation by large boats impossible from Monghyr District upwards to Nagarbastí, in Darbhangah District. It is navigable all the year round for boats of 200 *maunds* (7 tons). In the rains,

boats of 2000 *maunds* (75 tons) can go as far as Ruserá; boats of 1000 *maunds* (37 tons) up to Muzaffarpur; and boats of 100 *maunds* ($3\frac{1}{2}$ tons) as far as Sigaulí, in the north of Champáran District. The Burí Gandak and the Bághmatí, which flows into it above Ruserá, convey the produce of Darbhangah to Calcutta. Principal marts—DARBHANGAH, MUZAFFARPUR, SOMASTIPUR, RUSERA, and KHARGARIA.

Buríganga.—River in Dacca District, Bengal; a branch of the Dhaleswari, about 26 miles in length, leaving that river a short distance below Sábhár village, and rejoining it at Fatullá on the Náráyanganj road. The city of Dacca is situated on the northern bank of this river. The tract between the Buríganga and the Dhaleswari is known as Paschimdí Island.

Burirhát.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 29′ N., long. 89° 16′ 30″ E. Chief export, tobacco.

Búriya.—Town in Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 9′ 30″ N., long. 77° 23′ 45″ E.; pop. (1868), 8351, comprising 4304 Hindus, 3786 Muhammadans, and 261 Síkhs. Situated near the west bank of the Jumna Canal, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Built in the reign of the Emperor Humáyun, by Búra, a Ját *zamíndár*; taken by the Síkhs about 1760, and erected into the capital of a considerable chieftainship, which was one of the nine states exempted from the reforms of 1849 (*see* UMBALLA DISTRICT), and permitted to retain independent jurisdiction after the reduction of the other chiefs to the position of *jágírdárs.* Part of the territory has since lapsed, but the remainder still forms the estate of Jiún Sinh, the present representative of the family, who resides in a handsome fort within the town. Other Síkh gentlemen have residences in the place. Considerable manufacture of country cloth; no trade of more than local importance.

Burma, British, is the name given by the English to the long strip of the Malay Peninsula lying between 9° 55′ and 20° 50′ N. lat., and between 92° and 99° E. long., which was added to our Indian Empire by the wars of 1824 and 1852. The territory left to the dynasty of Alaungphayá is known to us as INDEPENDENT BURMA; and to the Shans and others as Ava, from the name of a recent metropolis. British Burma covers an area of 88,556 square miles, and is bounded on the north by Upper Burma and Eastern Bengal, on the east by Karenní and the Siamese kingdom, and on the south and west by the sea. It is separated into 3 Divisions—Arakan, Pegu, and Tenasserim—containing 17 Districts, inclusive of the Salwín (Salween) Tracts and Northern Arakan. The population in 1876-77 was estimated at 2,942,605. The following table shows the details of area and population, as ascertained by the Census of 1872:—

AREA AND POPULATION OF TERRITORY UNDER THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CHIEF COMMISSIONER OF BRITISH BURMA IN 1872.

UNDER DIRECT BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.			
Divisions.	Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Population. (Census of 1872.)
Arakan, ...	Akyab, ...	5,337	276,671
	Northern Arakan,[1] .	1,213	8,790
	Kyouk-hpyú,[2] . .	4,309	144,177
	Sandoway, . . .	3,667	54,725
Pegu, ...	Rangoon,[3] . . .	5,691	431,069 (Rangoon and Thonkwa)
	Thonkwa, . . .	5,440	
	Bassein,[3] . . .	6,517	322,689
	Henzada,[3] [4] . . .	4,047 (Henzada and Tharawadi)	476,612
	Tharawadi, . . .		
	Prome, . . .	2,887	274,872
	Thayetmyo, . . .	2,397	156,816
Tenasserim, . . .	Amherst, . . .	15,203	239,940
	Tavoy, ...	7,200	71,827
	Mergui, ...	7,810	47,192
	Shwe-gyeng, . . .	5,565	129,485
	Toungu, . . .	6,354	86,166
	Salwin, . . .	4,646	26,117
Included in the Census, but omitted in the rearrangement of Districts, ...		273	...
	Total in 1872, . . .	88,556	2,747,148[5]

Physical Aspects.—The shape of the Province, as it figures on the map, somewhat resembles a sea-gull travelling towards the east with wide-extended wings. The northern pinion would be Arakan, stretching from the Náf estuary to Gwá, and narrowly confined in all its length between the Yoma Mountains and the sea. The body would include the valleys of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) and Sittaung (Tsit-toung), reaching inland for nearly 300 miles; while the southern wing would be Tenasserim, comprised between the mouths of the Sittaung and the Pákchán river, in the Isthmus of Kraw.

In the northern Division, owing to the vicinity of the boundary range, there are only inconsiderable streams. Of these the principal are the Náf estuary; the Mrú river, an arm of the sea running inland more than 50 miles, and from 3 to 4 miles broad at its mouth; and the Koladán or Arakan river, rising near the Blue Mountain, in lat. 23° N., with Akyab, the chief Divisional town, situated on the right bank close

[1] Excluding the Hill Tracts. [2] Formerly called Ramree.

[3] The alterations in the area of these Districts are due to the creation of a new one, named Thún-khwa, in 1875. In April 1878 the Henzada District was divided into two, named Henzada and Tharawadi.

[4] Formerly called Myanoung.

[5] According to a Census taken for revenue purposes in 1876, the population of British Burma was computed to be 2,942,605.

to its mouth. The Koladán is navigable for 40 miles from its mouth by vessels of 300 or 400 tons burthen. Farther south the coast is rugged and perilous for ships, but studded with fertile islands, the largest of which are Cheduba and Ramrí (Ramree).

In Pegu, the main rivers are the Irawadi, the Hlaing or Rangoon, the Pegu, the Sittaung, and the Bhíleng. The Irawadi flows from its undiscovered sources about 800 miles before reaching British possessions. Through these, its waters roll on in a south-south-west direction for 240 miles, when it empties itself by ten mouths into the sea. As it approaches the coast, it divides into numerous branches, converting the lower portion of the valley into a network of tidal creeks. It is navigable for river steamers as far as Bhamo, 600 miles beyond the frontier. The Hlaing rises close to Prome, and flows in a southerly direction till, passing Rangoon, it is joined by the Pegu and Pú-zwon-doung rivers, coming from the north-east and the east. The two latter streams rise close together in the Yoma range, about 58 miles above the town of Pegu. They intercommunicate so frequently throughout the lower portion of the valley, that they can hardly be pronounced distinct streams. The Rangoon river also communicates by more than one channel with the principal delta branch of the Irawadi. The Sittaung river rises far north of British territory, and during the dry weather is with difficulty navigable by boats of any draught. Below Shwe-gyeng, where it receives the waters of the Shwe-gyeng river, it gradually widens; and after a backward curve, it issues through a funnel-shaped basin into the Gulf of Martaban, spreading so rapidly that it is difficult to distinguish where the river ends and the gulf begins. The Bhíleng river rises in the Paunglaung (Poung-loung) Hills, and, flowing south, enters the Gulf of Martaban between the Salwín and the Sittaung. The valleys of the Irawadi and the Sittaung unite towards their mouth to form an extensive plain, stretching from Cape Negrais to Martaban—the most productive portion of the whole Province.

The great river of the Tenasserim Division is the Salwín (Salween). Its source in Thibet has never been explored, but 600 miles due north of its mouth, between Talifu and Momien, in the Province of Yunan, it flows a rolling torrent, with a shingle bed 140 yards wide. Owing to numerous rapids and rocks, it is only navigable for a few miles from Maulmain, the point at which it enters the sea. The Tenasserim river, which rises in about 15° N. lat., flows past the town which gives its name both to the stream and the Division. It enters the sea by two mouths, the northern channel being navigable by boats for about 100 miles. Three chief ranges of hills traverse the Province from north to south. Their configuration has been well described by Colonel Yule. To the west is the Arakan Yoma, a cramped and stunted prolongation of the great multiple congeries of mountains which start

from the Assam chain. Seven hundred miles from its origin in the Nágá wilds, it sinks into the sea by Cape Negrais; the last bluff crowned by the Hmawden pagoda, gleaming far to seaward, a Burmese Sunium. The Pegu Yoma is the range which separates the Sittaung from the Irawadi valley. It starts from Yekme-then in Upper Burma, and stretches south with a general direction in the meridian to a parallel a little higher than the head of the delta. Here it branches out into several low terminal spurs, the extremity of one being crowned by the cathedral of Buddhism, the great temple-shrine of Shwe Dagon. The Paunglaung, which divides the Sittaung and the Salwín valleys, is a meridional chain, some of the peaks of which, in the neighbourhood of Toungú (Toung-ngú) reach an altitude of more than 6000 feet. The Tenasserim Hills may be regarded as a prolongation of this range. They form the boundary between our territory and Siam.

The lakes in the Province would be more properly entitled lagunes, and there are few of any importance. The best known is the Kan-daw-gyí, or royal lake, near Rangoon. The Thú Lake, in the Henzada District, is 9 miles round and 2½ across; and there are two lakes in the Bassein District, each about 5 miles in circumference. A canal connects the Pegu and Sittaung rivers.

The country throughout the Delta is flat and uninteresting. Towards Prome the valley of the Irawadi contracts, and the monotony of the plain is diversified by a wooded range of hills, which cling to the western bank nearly all the way to the frontier. The Salwín valley contains occasional harmonies of forest, crag, and mountain stream; but they bear the same relation to the wild sublimity of the Himálayas as the Trossachs to the Alps. On the other hand, the scenery in Tavoy and Mergui, and among the myriad islets which fringe the Tenasserim coast, is almost English in its verdure and repose. A large part of the Province is covered with forests, most of them reserved by the State. The teak plantations lie in the Rangoon Division.—*See* AMHERST DISTRICT.

History.—The Golden Chersonese, as Ptolemy designated it, has played a quite insignificant *rôle* in the world's history, as compared with the other two great Asian peninsulas. Each has been the home and stronghold of a colossal creed; but while Arabia and India are indissolubly connected with the fabric of modern civilisation, the eastern region has remained isolated and unknown, the battle-ground and grave of strange races and kingdoms, who appear and disappear with scarcely an echo from their existence penetrating to the outer world. Our present possessions comprise the sites of at least four ancient kingdoms—Arakan, Tha-htún, Martaban, and Pegu. The meagre annals which remain ascribe to each an Indian origin, and it is from India, no doubt, that their literature and religion have been derived. Indeed, several of the names which we find in the Tables of Ptolemy assigned

to the Golden Chersonese (properly in his geography the delta of the Irawadi) are purely Indian, and show that Indian influence already prevailed on the coast. The Arakanese chronicle (*see* AKYAB DISTRICT) relates how the country was first colonized by a prince from Benares, who established his capital at Sandoway. The next irruption was by the Burmese race from the east; but apparently they made little head against the indigenous tribes, till another legendary prince (this time of Gautama's line) arrived as their champion and king. His dynasty was probably superseded by a fresh invasion from Burma, occurring, according to their chronology, in B.C. 825; and the Buddhist religion was introduced during the reign of the twenty-ninth monarch of the new line, A.D. 146. About the year 970 A.D., the country was attacked by the Shans, who retired after eighteen years' possession. One of the old dynasty then recovered the kingdom, with the help of the Burmese, at Pagan (Pugán); and similar aid was given to one of his successors against a rebel nearly 100 years later. In the reign of Gan-laya, who ascended the throne about 1133 A.D., the Kings of Bengal, Pegu, Pagan, and Siam are said to have acknowledged Arakanese supremacy. During the next century and a half the country suffered largely from inroads made by the Shans and the Talaings, till King Mendí, in A.D. 1294, repulsed the invaders, and in his turn carried arms against Pagan and Pegu. This resulted in a long period of comparative immunity, till an act of tyranny, committed by the reigning prince, Meng Saw Mun, A.D. 1404, raised a rebellion against him, and cost the kingdom its independence. The dethroned monarch took refuge in Bengal, and was restored a few years later by Musalmán aid. Thenceforth the coins of the Arakan kings bore on the reverse their names and titles in corrupt imitations of Persian and Nagarí characters, and the custom was continued long after their connection had been severed with Bengal. The remaining record of the country presents a confused record of intestine strife and foreign war. Despite its mountain barrier, it lay at the mercy of both Burmese and Talaings, and its rulers were generally the creatures of one or the other power. The close of the 16th century witnessed the last great struggle between Ava and Pegu; and the then King of Arakan availed himself of this opportunity, and of the weakness of his neighbours in Bengal, to extend his dominion over Chittagong, and northwards as far as the Meghná river. His son aided the Viceroy of Toungú (Toung-ngú) in completing the ruin of the Peguan empire, and endeavoured to retain the Province through the agency of the Portuguese adventurer, Philip de Brito y Nicote, whom he left in charge of Syriam. Nicote, once in power, disclaimed all allegiance, and maintained possession for thirteen years, till subdued and slain by the King of Ava in 1613 A.D. During the 17th century Arakan is described by Bernier as the resort of all loose European adventurers.

Sebastian Gonzales, a worthy successor to Nicote, established himself at Sandiva (Sandwíp), and was for years a terror to the country, till crushed with the help of the Dutch. The middle of the 18th century saw the rise of Alaungphayá ('Alompra'); and Arakan, exhausted by intestine dissension, fell an easy prey, in 1784, to Bhodaw Phayá, the son of that monarch, and was permanently annexed to the Avan dominion. It was this conquest which first brought the Burmese into contact with our Bengal frontier; and it was mainly acts of aggression from Arakan which led to the war of 1824, and the treaty of Yandabú two years later, which added Arakan and the Tenasserim Provinces to our Indian Empire. For thirty-eight years they were administered under the Bengal Government, whose unwieldy bulk stretched over Assam and across the Arakan and Pegu Yomas, up to the Sittaung and Salwín watershed, with the Irawadi delta, as yet unacquired, intervening between the two ranges. In 1853 Pegu passed under British rule. In 1862 the three Divisions were welded into a separate Province, with Sir Arthur Phayre as the first Chief Commissioner.

Tha-htún, Pegu, and Martaban were the chief towns in the territory of Ramanna (Ramaniya), called by the Burmese the three places of the Talaings. The Múns or Talaings are a distinct family from the Burmese, and their language is cognate with those of Kamboja and Assam. Tha-htún was probably founded by Indian emigrants from the Coromandel coast several hundred years before the Christian era. The ruins of the city still exist, on a small stream about 10 miles from the sea-shore and 44 miles north-north-west from Martaban. The silting up of the channel has destroyed its position as a port, but it was known in India as a considerable emporium. We possess but scanty records of its history. In the 3rd century before Christ, two missionaries were despatched to Tha-htún (known then as Suvarna-bhúmí, or Golden Land, the *Sobana Emporium* of Ptolemy) from the third great Buddhist assembly. Tradition falsely relates that Gautama visited the country thirty-seven years before attaining Nirvána, and was badly treated by the rude inhabitants of the coast. Another event of importance was the introduction of the Buddhist scriptures by Buddhaghosa, from Ceylon, A.D. 403. The kingdom existed till the close of the 11th century, and the names of 59 monarchs are recorded, whose reigns extended over 1683 years. It was then utterly destroyed by Anawrahtá, the famous Emperor of Pagan; and the ruthless devastation to which the whole Talaing territory was subjected, probably accounts for the paucity of surviving chronicles.

The city of Pegu, according to native tradition, was founded by emigrants from Tha-htún in A.D. 573. Martaban was built three years later. The conflict between Bráhman and Buddhist then going on in Southern India no doubt affected the coast of Ramanna, and the new kingdom is mentioned as having successfully repelled an invasion from the

adjacent continent. Gradually it came to embrace the whole country between Bassein and Martaban. It is related of the seventeenth ruler, Tissa, that he was converted from heretical doctrines through the courage of a young girl. With him terminated the native dynasty. After Anawrahta's conquest, about 1050 A.D., Pegu remained subject to Burma for nearly 200 years. Its fortunes began to revive after the capture of Pagan by the forces of Kublai Khán. Magadu, an adventurer who is described as a native of Takaw-wún, near Martaban, raised the standard of revolt, and speedily found himself in possession of Martaban and Pegu. He defeated the Pagan forces sent to subdue him, and recovered all the Talaing country as far as Henzada and Bassein. He was in some degree feudatory to the King of Siam, in whose service he had been, and who had granted him royal insignia. He died A.D. 1296, after a reign of twenty-two years. In the year A.D. 1321, Tavoy and Tenasserim were added to the kingdom, which led to never-ending strife with Siam. During the reign of Binya-ú, who succeeded in A.D. 1348, the country was in great peril from the Zimme Shans and from internal revolt. The king shifted his capital from Martaban to Pegu; and though he conciliated the Shans, he was unable to crush the rebellion. Finally, in 1385, he was deposed by his son, Binya-nwe, the most famous of this line, who ruled under the name of Rázádhirit. He reigned for thirty-five years, in perpetual strife with Ava. His chief task was to repel invasion, though in 1404 he led a successful expedition to the very heart of the enemy's country. His kingdom embraced the Tenasserim Provinces and the Irawadi and Sittaung delta nearly as far north as Prome. For more than a century after his death Pegu remained in plenty and quiet, under a succession of able rulers. The last monarch, Taká-rwut, came to the throne A.D. 1526. His father had quarrelled with the King of Toung-ngú, who, now that Ava had fallen to a race of Shan chieftains, was considered the representative of the ancient Burmese monarchy. Taben Shwe-htí succeeded to this inheritance in 1530, and for four successive years attacked Pegu without avail. At length, in the year 1535, he obtained possession of the capital, and his brother-in-law, Bureng-naung, having captured Martaban after a siege of over seven months, the new dynasty was established without further resistance among the Talaings. It is about this period that we begin to have notices of Pegu by Portuguese voyagers. Foreign mercenaries were employed by the new monarch in his subsequent wars both against Ava and Siam; and native historians ascribe his degraded habits and consequent loss of power to his intimacy with western strangers. He reigned for ten years in Pegu, and was succeeded by Bureng-naung A.D. 1550, known in Portuguese annals under the name Branginoco. This monarch, after crushing a formidable rebellion among his new subjects, extended his conquests

over Prome, Ava, and the Shan States, as far as the Assam frontier. In 1563, he attacked Siam, and subjected it to his sway. On its rebelling six years later, he crushed the insurrection with another huge expedition. He died in 1581, while preparing for an invasion of Arakan. The wealth and magnificence of the Pegu empire at this time have been described by contemporary travellers. Its swift and utter destruction is quite without a parallel in eastern history. The emperor's son, Nanda-bhuying, succeeded to the throne; and four unsuccessful attempts to reduce Siam crippled the whole resources of the country. Plague, famine, and dissension ensued; the emperor alienated all his feudatories by his wanton cruelty and oppression, and finally his uncle, the King of Toung-ngú, united with the King of Arakan and captured the tyrant in his capital, 1599 A.D. A subsequent invasion from Siam completed the ruin of the country; which none of the invaders showed any anxiety to retain in its depopulated and devastated condition. Finally, the splendid dominion of Taben Shwé-htí was actually governed for thirteen years by Nicote, the low-born Portuguese adventurer. In 1613, the King of Ava found himself strong enough to subdue the foreigners, and to annex the whole land to his own dominions. Thus, after an interval of more than 400 years, the seat of power was once more fixed in the upper country, and the ancient territory of Ramanna was once again administered by Burmese governors. In 1735, the Talaings rose against their conquerors, and not only expelled them from Pegu, but for twenty years maintained their supremacy throughout the country. They were crushed by the irresistible arm of Alaungphayá, who left his new city of Rangoon to testify by its name to the completion of strife. But the Talaings could never be reconciled to Burmese supremacy, and a fresh revolt broke out in 1783, which was repressed with great barbarity by Bhodaw Phayá. The advent of British troops in the war of 1824 gave them a definite hope of delivery, and they were bitterly disappointed at our abandoning the country. At length the famous proclamation of Lord Dalhousie, on the 20th December 1852, relieved them for ever from their ancient oppressors; and ten years later the Province was organized and a Chief Commissioner appointed. The names of this officer and his successors are as follows:—Sir Arthur P. Phayre (appointed in 1862), Lieut.-General A. Fytche (1867), the Hon. Ashley Eden (1871), A. Rivers Thompson (1875), and C. U. Aitchison (1878).

Population.—The last Census of British Burma was taken on the 15th August 1872, when the population was returned at 2,747,148 souls. The poll tax, which still exists in the Province, necessitates the yearly numbering of the people; and the District returns for 1876-77 showed a total of 2,942,605. The rate of increase goes on steadily at about 2½ per cent. per annum. The density of the population is only 33 to

the square mile. The details of the population in the three Divisions of the Province have already been given in the table at the commencement of this article. The males outnumber the females in British Burma, the figures obtained by the Census of 1872 being as follows:—Males, 1,435,518; females, 1,311,630. Classified according to age, there were in that year, under 12 years old—males, 505,986; females, 485,449: above 12 years—males, 929,532; females, 826,181,—total population in 1872, 2,747,148.

The Province may be considered as perhaps the most progressive of our Indian dependencies. Between 1826 and 1855, Arakan increased in population from 100,000 to 366,310, or an average of 50 per cent. in each decade. In Tenasserim, three years after its annexation, the population was estimated at about 70,000; by 1855 it had risen to 213,692, or 200 per cent. in 26 years. Between 1855 and 1876, the population of the whole Province has increased from a million and a quarter to nearly three millions. The number of villages, townships, etc. in the Province in 1876 was 14,741; the number of inhabited houses, 591,897. The following are the principal towns:—Rangoon, pop. (1876-77), 83,322; Maulmain, 51,607; Prome, 25,684; Bassein, 22,417; Akyab, 18,306; Henzada, 16,469; Tavoy, 15,130; Toung-ngú, 13,087; Shwe-doung, 13,428; Mergui, 10,731; Thayet-myo, 10,427; Kyanghen, 8761; Allannyo, 7802; Shwe-gyeng, 7398; Yandún, 6908; Myanoung, 5859; Pantanaw, 5766; Paungde, 5312. At the time of our annexation there were not three towns in the Province with a population of 10,000, and scarcely five towns with a population of more than 5000. Since then Maulmain has grown from a fishing village into a town with over 50,000 inhabitants; Akyab, then a petty hamlet, now contains 18,000 souls; and the returns for 1876 show 11 towns with a population of more than 10,000, and 7 with a population of more than 5000.

The only two institutions of any note in the Province are the Agri-horticultural Society and the Rangoon Literary Society. Both are in a thriving condition. The gardens of the former are attached to the Phayre Museum at Rangoon.

Religion and Ethnography.—Burma may claim at present to be the headquarters of Southern Buddhism. The religion exists throughout the country in its purest and most amiable form. It is singularly free from sect, the only two parties of any importance differing chiefly on some minor points of ceremonial. There are no trammels whatever of class or caste or creed. The monastic order is open to the highest and lowest alike; its essential demands being a life of purity, temperance, and truth. The followers of Gautama number more than five-sixths of the whole population, Muhammadans about one-thirtieth, while Hindus and Christians constitute each about 1 per cent. of the total. Formerly

the Nga-wún river, for nearly 200 miles. But the work of regulation is by no means complete, and the several problems which beset the deltaic formation of a difficult river have yet to be successfully grappled with.

Toungya (Taungya) or *Júm* cultivation prevails chiefly on the Northern Arakan Hills. This consists in clearing a patch of forest land, setting fire to the fallen jungle, and then sowing in the ashes a miscellaneous crop of cotton, paddy, and pumpkins or other vegetables, all of which ripen in about five months. The assessment is generally made in these cases on the cultivator or his house, irrespective of the amount of his clearing. The area thus cultivated in 1876-77 was estimated at 74,688 acres, as compared with 109,288 acres in 1875; but the returns can hardly be relied on, owing to the nomadic habit of the cultivators. The average rent of Toungya land is given at 13 as. 7 pie per acre.

Land Tenures.—The system of land tenure is exceedingly simple. Government is the sole proprietor of the soil, and deals directly with the cultivator, from whom it receives a rent varying from 1s. to 10s. an acre. The average assessment is about 3s. 3d. There are no *zamíndárs* or large landed proprietors, and no Government or wards estates. A new-comer is allowed total exemption from all rent and taxes for a certain period, to enable him to clear his grant. Government then levies a rent 20 per cent. lower than in other Provinces of India; and requires only 2 *ánnás* (3d.) an acre for land which may be left fallow. Besides this, the settler gets generous allowance for failure in crops or cattle, and can at any time avail himself of five or ten years' settlement on exceedingly liberal terms. However, only about one-fifth of the area tilled is under settlement, and the holdings are annually re-measured and assessed by revenue officials, styled Thúgyís, who are paid by a fixed commission on their collections. The farms average about 8 acres in extent. The basis of the land revenue settlement has been:—20 per cent. of the gross produce, payable to Government in money at the rates of the price of grain in the circle within which the land is situated. Practically, however, a lower percentage is taken. In the districts of Rangoon, Bassein, and Henzada, and in the whole of the Tenasserim Division, each male engaged in Toungya cultivation pays a tax of two shillings per annum, while in the Districts of Toungngú and Prome, and generally in the Arakan Division, each family is assessed at this rate. Among the hill tribes of Northern Arakan, each house pays four shillings per annum, which includes also house or capitation tax. Survey and demarcation are in the hands of a special department; the settlements, however, being under the control of the revenue authorities. No revenue survey has ever been made of the whole Province, and the department is chiefly employed in testing the measurements of the Thúgyís.

Wages and Prices.—The local supply of labour is inadequate to the demands upon it, and various attempts have been made to recruit it from Bengal. Unskilled labour is worth from 1s. to 1s. 6d. a day, and shipping coolies during the season obtain as much as 2s. It has been calculated that it takes as much money to construct 1 mile of road, or 100 cubic feet of masonry, in the Province as it does to make 2 miles, or 800 cubic feet, in India. The large exportations of the food staple, and increased demands, have caused prices to rise very rapidly of late years. Previous to the annexation of the Province the usual cost of paddy was Rs. 20 or Rs. 25 (£2 or £2, 10s.) per 100 bushels; it now ranges from Rs. 80 to Rs. 120 (£8 to £12). Sesamum seed varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 125 (£5 to £12, 10s.); it now fluctuates between £18 and £38. Uncleaned cotton has risen from about Rs. 10 (£1) per 100 *viss* (365 lbs.) to Rs. 24 (£2, 8s.); chillies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 28; tobacco from Rs. 10 to Rs. 30; the average price of a bullock has increased from Rs. 10 to Rs. 43, and of a buffalo from Rs. 15 to Rs. 55; bamboos, which used to be sold at Rs. 2½ (5s.) per 1000, will now fetch Rs. 20 (£2).

Means of Communication.—Next to labour, the most urgent want of the country is land communication. There are only 1002 miles of made road in the whole Province, and a great portion of this is impassable during the rains. Two large Irawadi Districts, Thún-khwa and Bassein, have not a mile of trade road. There is abundance of waterway, however, throughout the delta all the year round, but the Sittaung valley has no such advantages. A railway from Rangoon to Prome—distance 163 miles—was opened in May 1877, and the results have been most satisfactory. Another proposed line, to connect Rangoon and Toung-ngú, was completed in 1875-76. According to present estimates, an expenditure of £6500 a mile for the entire length would not only open up fertile districts as yet without proper means of communication, but would secure the frontier military station, which in its present isolation is exposed to some peril. A still-water canal, with locks, between the Sittaung and Irawadi rivers has been for some years in construction, intended to avoid the dangers of the bore in the Sittaung estuary. More than £80,000 have been spent on it, but hitherto it has scarcely proved a success.

Commerce, Manufactures, etc.—The commercial prosperity of British Burma has kept pace with its rapidly increasing population. Between 1855 and 1876, the value of the trade of the Province has risen from £5,000,000 to nearly £16,000,000 sterling—the total value of the imports and exports in the latter year (1876) amounting to £15,954,287. Rangoon absorbs 93 per cent. of the whole foreign import trade, and about 60 per cent. of the foreign export trade. Its commerce has increased nearly fourfold since 1861. The chief articles exported are

rice, timber, cotton, cutch, hides, petroleum, and precious stones. The chief imports are piece-goods, cotton twist, gunny bags, betel-nuts, liquors, and tobacco.

The main commercial industries of the Province are those connected with the rice and timber trade. There are some 47 steam mills engaged in husking and cleaning rice for exportation, and the number is rapidly increasing with the demand for rice for shipment to Europe, the Straits, and China. The majority of the steam sawmills are at Maulmain, the port from which most of the timber is shipped abroad. The indigenous manufactures of the country produce little beyond what is required for home consumption. Silk, lacquered ware, and gold and silver work, are among the most justly admired of Burmese manufactures. The characteristics of Burmese art are vigour and novelty of design, but want of delicacy and finish in execution. Most religious buildings are ornamented with wood carving, which is rough, grotesque, and striking. Recent prospecting for earth oil in the Akyab and Kyouk-hpyú Districts has been rewarded with large success, and a well yielding 200 gallons a day has been discovered.

Mines.—The only mines in the Province are those worked for tin in the southern portion of the Tenasserim Division. This mineral (a binoxide) exists over a large extent of country in the Mergui and Tavoy Districts, and is obtained by removing and washing the pebble and boulder deposits of the river-beds. Samples of the tin-stone, once washed, have produced about 70 per cent. of metal, and twice washed, 75 per cent. The ore is therefore very rich, and the metal produced is of excellent quality. Hitherto these deposits have been washed by Chinese and natives of the country in a very rough and unscientific manner, and the tin-stone is smelted in a most primitive way, the produce realized being 68 per cent. of metal. A recent experiment, however, made by a European firm, proves that the lodes, though promising well, gradually taper away, and are finally lost in the hard trap rock. Coal exists on the banks of the Tenasserim river, and in other parts of the Province, but it has never been worked to any extent. Lead has been found in Toungú, and on Maingay's Island in the Mergui Archipelago, but nothing has been done towards utilizing it. This mineral also exists in the Shwe-gyeng District, as well as gold, antimony, ore, and ironstone. The quantity of the precious metals is, however, very small, and the workers make but a poor living. Limestone exists in several parts of the Province, and quarries are worked pretty extensively in Thayetmyo and Bassein. Stone might also be excavated in Sandoway if a demand existed.

Revenue, etc.—The statistics of the population given above illustrate the remarkable progress which has been made by the Province since it came under British administration. Its growing prosperity is not less

strikingly shown by the figures which follow. The revenue of Arakan expanded between 1826 and 1855 from £23,225 to £127,729; while that of Tenasserim rose from £2676 in 1829 (three years after its annexation) to £83,300 in 1855. Between 1855 and 1876, the revenue of the whole Province has increased from about half a million sterling to more than two millions. The main sources of imperial income are land, customs, excise, and forests. Speaking roughly, the land tax and customs furnish, in nearly equal proportions, one-half of the total revenue, the capitation tax one-fifth, and excise one-twelfth. Capitation tax and fishery rents form special features of the administration. The former is levied on the male population between the ages of eighteen and sixty, at the rate of 10s. a head for married men, and half that amount for bachelors. Exceptions are made in favour of religious and other teachers, Government servants, all persons unable to earn their own living, and all immigrants for the first five years. Traditional usage affords the principal argument for maintaining this old-fashioned impost. The gross amount it realized in 1876-77 was £263,526, levied on 648,633 persons. On the other hand, there is no salt tax in Burma as in India, and the land tax is kept very low. The forests are now entirely worked by Government, the gross revenue in 1876 being £155,146, of which about one-third was available after paying all charges. The average incidence of taxation is 13s. 8½d. per head. The revenues of the Province are greatly in excess of the expenditure. During the last ten years, the disbursements have increased from £590,892 to £887,260; yet the net surplus available has risen from £312,500 in 1866 to £885,148 in 1876.

Administrative Statistics.—There are at present 159 Courts of Law in the Province, besides a Judicial Commissioner and a Recorder at Rangoon. The two last, when sitting together, exercise the powers of a supreme appellate tribunal. There are only 3 unpaid 'honorary' magistrates; 148 courts have both civil and criminal jurisdiction. Average number of civil suits filed every year, 25,000, the average amount involved being between £7 and £8. The average duration of a suit is about eight days, and the proportion of successful appeals to the total of decrees only 4 per cent. The subordinate courts are almost entirely presided over by native officials. In criminal work during the year 1875, there were 25,503 cases reported, and 31,808 persons convicted out of 46,324 put on trial. The total of prisoners in the 15 jails of the Province was 13,780, only 3 per cent. of whom were women. The daily average population was 4822; the total expenditure, £44,971; and the average net cost per head, £6, 9s. 5d. The police force of the Province during the year 1876 consisted of 22 gazetted officers and 6830 non-gazetted officers and men; equivalent to one policeman to every 13 square miles, or to every 439 of population; the

or Paunglaung (Pounloung), the Salwín, and the Myit-nge. The first two rivers have their sources somewhere in the northern chain of mountains in the interior, one head stream of the Irawadi probably coming from Thibet; the Salwín farther to the east in Thibet; the Sittaung (Tsit-toung), in the hills to the south-east of Mandalay; and the Myit-nge, another large affluent of the Irawadi, which descends from the Shan States to the east of the capital. Except the last, which has a westerly direction, they all run in a southerly course to the Indian Ocean. The Irawadi and Salwín are large rivers, which in the lower part of their course overflow the flat country below their banks during the season of the rains, and higher up force their way through magnificent defiles. The former is navigable a considerable distance above Bhamo; but the latter is practically useless as a means of communication, owing to the frequent obstacles in its channel. The Burmese empire with its present limits contains no maritime districts, and only isolated tracts of alluvial plain; it is in the main an upland territory, bounded at its southern extremity by a frontier line at the distance of about 200 miles from the mouths of the Irawadi, in 19° 30′ N. lat. From this point the country begins to rise, and thence for about 300 miles farther it contains much rolling country intersected by occasional hill ranges; beyond, all is wild and mountainous.

Natural Products.—Though inferior in point of fertility to the low-lying tracts of British Burma, the upland country is far from unproductive. The chief crops are rice (of which the Burmese count 102 different sorts), maize, millet, wheat, various pulses, tobacco, cotton, sesamum, mustard, and indigo. The sugar-cane appears to have been long known to the Burmese; but, though the climate and soil are extremely favourable, it is not generally cultivated. A cheap and coarse sugar is obtained from the juice of the Palmyra palm, which abounds in the tract south of the capital. The cocoa-nut and areca palms are not common. The tea-plant, which is indigenous, is cultivated in the hills by some of the mountain tribes at the distance of about five days' journey, and by others in still greater perfection at the distance of about ten days' journey from the capital. It seems, however, to be another plant, probably the *Elæodendron persicum*, which furnishes the principal ingredient in the *hlapét*, or pickled tea, that forms a favourite Burmese delicacy, and is an essential accompaniment to every social or ceremonial incident. Cotton is grown in every part of the kingdom and its dependencies, but chiefly in the dry lands and climate of the upper Provinces. Indigo is indigenous, and is universally cultivated, but in a very rude manner; it is still more rudely manufactured, so as to be wholly unfit for exportation abroad. The most common fruits in Burma are the mango, the tamarind, the guava, the orange, the citron, the pine, the custard apple, the jack, the *papaya*, and the plantain. The yam and the

sweet potato are grown, but not extensively; the common potato is largely cultivated by the Kachyens on the Burmo-Chinese frontier, where it is known by the name of 'foreigner's root.' Onions are produced; and capsicum, which, after salt, is the most ordinary condiment used by the Burmese, is cultivated everywhere.

Forests.—The forests of Burma abound in fine trees. Among these teak holds a conspicuous place, though some of the finest teak forests were lost to the Burmese with Pegu. Almost every description of timber known in India is produced in the forests, from which also an abundant supply is obtained of the varnish employed by the Shans and the Burmese in their manufacture of lacquered ware. Sticklac of an excellent quality is obtained in the woods, and rubber of late years has been largely exported.

Minerals.—Burma is rich in minerals. It produces gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, antimony, bismuth, amber, coal, petroleum, nitre, natron, salt, limestone, and marble, the jade or *yu* of the Chinese, sapphires, and other precious stones. Gold is found in the sands of different rivers, and also towards the Shan territory on the eastern frontier; but the demand is very much greater than the native supply. There are silver mines near the Chinese frontier, but they have not been recently worked. The mountainous districts of the Shan territory contain almost all the other metals; but they are but scantily exported, and the copper and tin seen in the capital are imported from China. Iron is found in several places, and is wrought especially at Poppa, near a mountain of that name to the eastward of the old capital Pagan, and also at Myedú, north-west of the capital; but, owing to ignorance and the want of proper methods, about 30 or 40 per cent. of the metal is lost in the process. Large deposits of rich magnetic oxide, as yet untouched, exist in the ridges east of the capital near the banks of the navigable river Myit-nge, and the same District contains lime in great abundance and of remarkable whiteness; while statuary marble, equal to the best Italian specimens, is found about 15 miles north of the capital and east of the Irawadi. Mines of amber are wrought, among other places, at Húkhong or Payendwen, near the sources of Kyen-dwen. Nitre, natron, and salt are found in various quarters. Sulphur also occurs in some places, as in the District of Sale-Myo, and in the neighbourhood of the petroleum wells; but the quantity is comparatively small. Coal has been discovered in patches, but not in any quantity worth working. Petroleum is found near the village of Yè-nangyaung, on the banks of the Irawadi. Here are upwards of one hundred pits or wells, with a general depth of from 210 to 240 feet; though some of them reach to the depth of 300 feet. The liquid appears to boil up from the bottom like an abundant spring, and is extracted in buckets, and sent to all quarters of the country.

in any other person to wear. There is also an order of nuns and priestesses, who make a vow of chastity, but may at any time quit their order. Prostitutes are also considered as outcasts. The women in Burma are not shut up as in many other parts of the East, and excluded from the sight of men; on the contrary, they are suffered to appear openly in society, and have free access in their own name to the courts of law, where, if ill-treatment is proved, divorce is readily obtained.

Revenue.—The taxes from which the public revenue arises are in general rude and ill-contrived expedients for extortion, and are vexatious to the people at the same time that they are little productive to the State. The most important is the house or family tax, which is said to be assessed by a *Domesday Book*, compiled by order of Mentaragyi in 1783. The amount varies greatly in different years, and to a remarkable extent in different Districts. Next in order is the tax on agriculture, which is also very irregularly imposed. A large part of the cultivated land of the kingdom is assigned to favourites of the court, or to public functionaries in lieu of stipends or salaries, or is appropriated to the expenses of public establishments, such as war-boats, elephants, etc.; and this assignment conveys a right to tax the inhabitants according to the discretion of the assignee. The court favourites who receive these grants generally appoint agents to manage their estates; they pay a certain tax or quit-rent to the crown, and their agents extort from the cultivators as much more as they can by every mode of oppression, often by torture. Besides this stated tax, extraordinary contributions are levied directly from the lords and nobles to whom the lands are assigned, who in their turn levy it from the cultivators, and generally make it a pretence for plunder and extortion.

Arts and Manufactures.—The architecture of religious edifices erected in the Middle Ages is of striking and effective character, though the material is only of brick. The general style bears evidence of an Indian origin; but numerous local modifications have been introduced. Perhaps the feature of most interest is the use of the pointed arch as well as the flat and the circular, and that at a time long anterior to its employment in India. Modern buildings are chiefly of wood; palaces and monasteries, carved with extraordinary richness of detail, and often gilt all over, present an aspect of barbaric splendour. The *dagobas* (*dagoba* = *dhátu garbha*, relic chamber), which form at once the objects and the localities of Buddhist worship, are almost the only brick structures now erected, and these are often gilt all over. In carving, the Burmese artisans display unusual skill and inventiveness, and give full scope to the working of a luxuriant and whimsical fancy. The application of gilding is carried to an extravagant extent; as much as £40,000

is said to have been expended on this account for a single temple. The finest architectural monuments are to be found in the deserted city of Pagan, but many of the most magnificent are greatly shattered by earthquakes. The number of religious buildings, small and great, throughout the country is enormous; at every turn the traveller finds pagodas or *kyaungs* (monasteries), or lesser shrines, or *zayats* (resting-places for travellers), founded by the Buddhists in order to acquire religious merit. The ordinary buildings are of a very slight construction; all but the more pretentious are chiefly built of bamboo, and roofed with grass. They are invariably on piles well raised from the ground. The whole process of the cotton manufacture is performed by women, who use a rude but efficient species of loom, and produce an excellent cloth, though they are much inferior in dexterity to the Indian artisans. Silk cloths are manufactured at different places from Chinese silk. The favourite patterns are zigzag longitudinal stripes of different colours, and the brilliance of the contrasts is frequently gorgeous in its results. The dyeing of the yellow robes of the priests is effected by means of the leaves of the jack-tree. The common, coarse, and unglazed earthenware is of an excellent quality; and a not inartistic glazed pottery is also made. The art of making porcelain, however, is entirely unknown. Iron ore, as already mentioned, is smelted; but the Burmese cannot manufacture steel, which is brought from Bengal. Bell-founding has been carried to considerable perfection. The largest specimen is that at the Mengún Pagoda, near the present capital, which measures 16 feet across the lip and weighs about 80 tons. Coarse articles of cutlery, including swords, spears, knives, also muskets and matchlocks, scissors, and carpenters' tools, are manufactured in the capital; and gold and silver ornaments are produced in every considerable place throughout the country. Embossed work in drinking cups and the like is executed with great richness of effect. North of the capital, and east of the Irawadi, as before stated, is an entire hill of pure white marble, and there are sculptured marble images of Gautama or Buddha. The marble is of the finest quality, and the workmen give it an exquisite polish by means of a paste of pulverized fossil wood. The chief seat of the manufacture of lacquered wares is at Nyaungú, near the ancient city of Pagan.

Commerce.—Since Burma was deprived of its harbours and maritime Districts, its foreign commerce has been extremely limited. The trade of the country centres chiefly in the capital. The principal imports are betel-nut, rice, salt, cotton-twist, piece-goods, and dried fish. In exchange are given raw cotton, cutch indigo, hides and horns, jaggery, petroleum, ponies, jade, tea, tobacco, wheat, lacquered ware, and sesamum oil. The inland trade with China, which the Panthay

rebellion has interrupted for years, has recently sprung into renewed activity, and cotton and jade are exchanged for copper, lead, iron, vermicelli, hams, and fruit in yearly increasing quantities. The trade of the northern part of Burma Proper is chiefly carried on at large fairs held in connection with religious festivals. One of the most important articles, in addition to European cloth goods, is salt, for their supply of which all the hill tribes are dependent on Burma.

Money.—A gold and silver currency has been for some years introduced by the late king. It corresponds to our Indian coinage.

Weights.—The Burmese dry measure is the *teng*, or basket, which is divided into 4 quarters and 16 *pyís*. In long measure the cubit measures about 18 English inches. Four cubits make a fathom; 7 cubits make a *ta*, and 1000 *tas* a mile, corresponding nearly with 2 English miles. In weights, 100 *kyats* (or *tickals*) make a *viss*, which equals 3·65 lbs. avoirdupois. Four *mats* make 1 *kyat*, and 2 *múgyís* a *mat*.

Calendar.—The current Burmese era commences from April A.D. 639. The year consists of twelve lunar months of twenty-nine and thirty days, one being intercalated every third year. A month is divided into two parts, the waxing and the wane; also into weeks, which follow the usual order of days. The day and night are each divided into four periods or beats of three hours each, commencing from nine o'clock.

Language and Literature.—The Burmese proper use a monosyllabic language, which shows distinct relation to Chinese on one side and to Thibetan on another. In contrast with Siamese, it is a very soft and flexible tongue, and its monosyllabic character is somewhat modified in pronunciation. It is a literary language, and has been under cultivation for perhaps six or seven centuries. It is written with an alphabet of Indian origin, and the letters are of a more or less circular form. A square variety was formerly prevalent. It has developed a poetic diction of such complete individuality that it is unintelligible without special study. The national chronicles, or chronicles of the kings (*Mahá-ráza Weng*), trace the royal lineage up to the very earliest ages. Though much of their history is no doubt of a questionable kind, the mutual agreement of the chronologies of the medieval annals of the various Indo-Chinese kingdoms is remarkable, and affords a strong contrast to the absence of all written Hindu chronology in India Proper at the same period. Libraries are common throughout the country, principally in the monasteries. Though a certain kind of paper is manufactured from bamboo pulp, the usual material of the books is the palm leaf, while for ordinary notebook purposes a kind of black tablet, called a *parabaik*, and a steatite pencil are employed.

History.—It is probable that Burma is the *Chryse Regio* of Ptolemy, a name parallel in meaning to *Sonaparanta*, the classic Pali title assigned to the country round the capital in Burmese documents. The royal history traces the lineage of the kings to the ancient Buddhist monarchs of India. This is hypothetical, but it is hard to say how early communication with Gangetic India began. From the 11th to the 13th century the old Burmese empire was at the height of its power, and to this period belong the splendid remains of architecture at Pagan. The city and the dynasty were destroyed by a Chinese (or rather Mongol) invasion (1284 A.D.) in the reign of Kubláí Khán. After that, the empire fell to a low ebb, and Central Burma was often subject to Shan dynasties. In the early part of the 16th century the Burmese princes of Toung-ngú, in the north-east of Pegu, began to rise to power, and established a dynasty which at one time held possession of Pegu, Ava, and Arakan. They made their capital at Pegu, and to this dynasty belong the gorgeous descriptions of some of the travellers of the 16th century. Their wars exhausted the country, and before the end of the century ensued a period of decay. A new dynasty arose in Ava, which subdued Pegu, and maintained their supremacy during the 17th and during the first forty years of the 18th century. The Peguans or Taleins then revolted, and having taken the capital Ava, and made the king prisoner, reduced the whole country to submission. Alompra (the Alaung-phayá of the previous article), ruler of the village of Motso-bo, planned the deliverance of his country. He attacked the Peguans with small detachments; but when his forces increased, he suddenly advanced, and took possession of the capital in the autumn of 1753. In 1754, the Peguans sent an armament of war-boats against Ava, but they were totally defeated by Alompra; while in the Districts of Prome, Donabyú, etc., the Burmese revolted, and expelled all the Pegu garrisons in their towns. In the same year, Prome was besieged by the King of Pegu, who was again defeated by Alompra, and the war was transferred from the upper Provinces to the mouths of the navigable rivers, and the numerous creeks and canals which intersect the low country. In 1755, the King of Pegu's brother was equally unsuccessful; after which the Peguans were driven from Bassein and the adjacent country, and were forced to withdraw to the fortress of Syriam, distant 12 miles from Rangoon. Here they enjoyed a brief repose, Alompra being called away to quell an insurrection of his own subjects, and to repel an invasion of the Siamese; but returning victorious, he laid siege to the fortress of Syriam, and took it by surprise. In these wars the French sided with the Peguans, the English with the Burmese. Dupleix, the Governor of Pondicherri, had sent two ships to the aid of the former; but the master of the first was decoyed up

the river by Alompra, where he was massacred along with his whole crew. The other vessel escaped to Pondicherri. Alompra was now master of all the navigable rivers; and the Peguans, shut out from foreign aid, were finally subdued. In 1757, the conqueror laid siege to the city of Pegu, which capitulated, on condition that their own king should govern the country, but that he should do homage for his kingdom, and should also surrender his daughter to the victorious monarch. Alompra never contemplated the fulfilment of the conditions; and having obtained possession of the town, abandoned it to the fury of his soldiers. In the following year the Peguans vainly endeavoured to throw off the yoke. Alompra afterwards reduced the town and District of Tavoy, and finally undertook the conquest of the Siamese. His army advanced to Mergui and Tenasserim, both which towns were taken; and he was besieging the capital of Siam when he was taken ill. He immediately ordered his army to retreat, in hopes of reaching his capital alive; but he expired on the way, in 1760, in the fiftieth year of his age, after he had reigned eight years. In the previous year, he had massacred the English of the establishment of Negrais, whom he suspected of assisting the Peguans. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Naung-daw-gyí, whose reign was disturbed by the rebellion of his brother Hsin-phyú-yin, and afterwards by one of his father's generals. He died in little more than three years, leaving one son in his infancy; and on his decease the throne was seized by his brother Hsin-phyú-yin. The new king was intent, like his predecessors, on the conquest of the adjacent States, and accordingly made war in 1765 on the Manipur kingdom, and also on the Siamese, with partial success. In the following year he defeated the Siamese, and, after a long blockade, obtained possession of their capital. But while the Burmese were extending their conquests in this quarter, they were invaded by a Chinese army of 50,000 men from the Province of Yunan. This army was hemmed in by the skill of the Burmese; and, being reduced by want of provisions, it was afterwards attacked and totally destroyed, with the exception of 2500 men, who were sent in fetters to work in the Burmese capital at their several trades. In the meantime the Siamese revolted; and while the Burmese army was marching against them, the Peguan soldiers who had been incorporated in it rose against their companions, and, commencing an indiscriminate massacre, pursued the Burmese army to the gates of Rangoon, which they besieged, but were unable to capture. In 1774, Hsin-phyú-yin was engaged in reducing the marauding tribes. He took the District and fort of Martaban from the revolted Peguans; and in the following year he sailed down the Irawadi with an army of 50,000 men, and, arriving at Rangoon, put to death the aged monarch of Pegu, along with many of his nobles, who had shared with him in the

offence of rebellion. He died in 1776, after a reign of twelve years, during which he had extended the Burmese dominions on every side. He was succeeded by his son, a youth of eighteen, called Tsingú-ming ('Changuzo' of Symes), who proved himself a bloodthirsty despot, and was put to death by his uncle, Bhodauphra or Mentaragyi, in 1781, who ascended the vacant throne. In 1783 the new king effected the conquest of Arakan. In the same year he removed his residence from Ava, which, with brief interruptions, had been the capital for four centuries, to the new city of Amarapura, 'the City of the Immortals.' The Siamese who had revolted in 1771 were never afterwards subdued by the Burmese; but the latter retained their dominion over the sea-coast as far as Mergui. In the year 1785, they attacked the island of Junkseylon with a fleet of boats and an army, but were ultimately driven back with loss; and a second attempt by the Burmese monarch, who in 1786 invaded Siam with an army of 30,000 men, was attended with no better success. In 1793, peace was concluded between these two powers, the Siamese yielding to the Burmese the entire possession of the coast of Tenasserim on the Indian Ocean, and the two important seaports of Mergui and Tavoy.

In 1795, the Burmese were involved in a dispute with the British in India, in consequence of their troops, to the number of 5000 men, having entered the District of Chittagong in pursuit of three robbers who had fled from justice across the frontier. Explanations being made and terms of accommodation offered by General Erskine, the commanding officer, the Burmese commander retired from British territory, when the fugitives were restored, and all differences for the time amicably arranged.

But it was evident that the gradual extension of the British and Burmese territories would in time bring the two powers into close contact along a more extended line of frontier, and in all probability lead to a war between them. It happened, accordingly, that the Burmese, carrying their arms into Assam and Manipur, penetrated to the British border near Sylhet, on the north-east frontier of Bengal, beyond which were the possessions of the Rájá of Cáchár, under the protection of the British Government. The Burmese leaders, arrested in their career of conquest, were impatient to measure their strength with their new neighbours, and at length ventured on the open violation of British territory. They attacked a party of Sepoys within the frontier, and seized and carried off British subjects, while at all points their troops, moving in large bodies, assumed the most menacing positions. In the south, encroachments were made upon the British frontier of Chittagong. The island of Sháhpurí, at the mouth of the Náf river, had been occupied by a small guard of British troops. These were attacked on the 23d September 1823 by the Burmese, and driven from their

post with the loss of several lives; and to the repeated demands of the British for redress, no answer was returned. Other outrages ensued; and at length, in February 1824, war was declared by the British Government.

Hostilities having commenced, the British rulers in India resolved to carry the war into the enemy's country; an armament, under Commodore Grant and Sir Archibald Campbell, entered the Irawadi river, and anchored off Rangoon on the 10th May 1824. After a feeble resistance this great seaport surrendered, and the troops were landed. The place was entirely deserted by its inhabitants, the provisions were carried off or destroyed, and the invading force took possession of a complete solitude. On the 28th May, Sir A. Campbell ordered an attack on some of the nearest posts, which were all carried after a feeble defence. Another attack was made on the 10th June on the stockades at the village of Kemmendine. Some of these were battered by artillery; and the shot and shell struck such terror into the Burmese that they fled in the utmost precipitation. It soon, however, became apparent that the expedition had been undertaken with very imperfect knowledge of the country, and without adequate provision. The devastation of the country, which was part of the defensive system of the Burmese, was carried out with unrelenting rigour, and the invaders were soon reduced to great difficulties. The health of the men declined, and their ranks were fearfully thinned. The monarch of Ava sent large reinforcements to his dispirited and beaten army; and early in July an attack was commenced on the British line, but proved unsuccessful. On the 8th, the British assaulted. The enemy were beaten at all points; and their strongest stockaded works, battered to pieces by a powerful artillery, were in general abandoned. With the exception of an attack by the Prince of Tharawadi in the end of August, the enemy allowed the British to remain unmolested during the months of July and August. This interval was employed by Sir A. Campbell in subduing the Burmese Provinces of Tavoy and Mergui, and the whole coast of Tenasserim. This was an important conquest, as the country was salubrious and afforded convalescent stations for the sick, who were now so numerous in the British army that there were scarcely 3000 soldiers fit for duty. An expedition was about this time sent against the old Portuguese fort and factory of Syriam, at the mouth of the Pegu river, which was taken; and in October the Province of Martaban was brought under the authority of the British.

The court of Ava, alarmed by the discomfiture of its armies, recalled the veteran legions which were employed in Arakan, under their renowned leader Maha Bandúla, in vain attempts to penetrate the British frontier. Bandúla hastened by forced marches to the defence of his country; and by the end of November an army of 60,000 men

had surrounded the British position at Rangoon and Kemmendine, for the defence of which Sir Archibald Campbell had only 5000 efficient troops. The enemy in great force made repeated attacks on Kemmendine without success, and, on the 7th December, Bandúla was completely routed by Sir A. Campbell. The fugitives retired to a strong position on the river, which they again entrenched; and here they were attacked by the British on the 15th, and driven in complete confusion from the field.

Sir Archibald Campbell now resolved to advance on Prome, about 100 miles higher up the Irawadi river. He moved with his force on the 13th February 1825 in two divisions, one proceeding by land, and the other, under General Cotton, destined for the reduction of Donabyú, being embarked on the flotilla. Taking the command of the land force, he continued his advance till the 11th March, when intelligence reached him of the failure of the attack upon Donabyú. He instantly commenced a retrograde march; on the 27th he effected a junction with General Cotton's force, and on the 2d April carried the entrenchments at Donabyú with little resistance, Bandúla having been killed by the explosion of a bomb. The English general entered Prome on the 25th, and remained there during the rainy season. On the 17th September an armistice was concluded for one month. In the course of the summer, General Morrison had conquered the Province of Arakan; in the north the Burmese were expelled from Assam; and the British had made some progress in Cáchár, though their advance was finally impeded by thick forests and jungle.

The armistice having expired on the 17th October, the army of Ava, amounting to 60,000 men, advanced in three divisions against the British position at Prome, which was defended by 3000 Europeans and 2000 Native troops. But the British still triumphed, and after several actions, in which the Burmese were the assailants and were partially successful, Sir A. Campbell, on the 1st December, attacked the different divisions of their army, and successfully drove them from all their positions, and dispersed them in every direction. The Burmese retired on Myede and afterwards on Mellon, along the course of the Irawadi, where they occupied, with 10,000 or 12,000 men, a series of strongly fortified heights and a formidable stockade. On the 26th, they sent a flag of truce to the British camp; and, a negotiation having commenced, peace was offered on the following conditions: — *1st*, The cession of Arakan, together with the Provinces of Mergui, Tavoy, and Yea; *2nd*, The renunciation by the Burmese sovereign of all claims upon Assam and the contiguous petty States; *3rd*, The Company to be paid a *crore* of rupees as an indemnification for the expenses of the war; *4th*, Residents from each Court to be allowed, with an escort of fifty men; while it was also stipulated that British ships should no longer

be obliged to unship their rudders and land their guns as formerly in Burmese ports. This treaty was agreed to and signed, but the ratification of the king was still wanting; and it was soon apparent that the Burmese had no intention to sign it, but were preparing to renew the contest. On the 19th January, accordingly, Sir A. Campbell attacked and carried the enemy's position at Mellon. Another offer of peace was here made by the Burmese, but it was found to be insincere; and the fugitive army made at the ancient city of Pugán-Myo a final stand in defence of the capital. They were attacked and overthrown on the 9th February 1826; and the invading force being now within four days' march of Ava, Dr. Price, an American missionary, who with other Europeans had been thrown into prison when the war commenced, was sent to the British camp with the treaty ratified, the prisoners of war released, and an instalment of 25 *lákhs* of rupees. The war was thus brought to a successful termination, and the British army evacuated the country. The treaty is known in history as the Treaty of Yandabú.

For some years peaceful relations continued undisturbed. While the prince by whom the treaty was concluded continued in power, its main stipulations were fairly carried out. That monarch, Phagyi-dau or Naung-daugyi, however, was obliged in 1837 to yield the throne to a usurper who appeared in the person of his brother, Kounboungmen or Tharawadi. The latter, at an early period, manifested not only that hatred of the British connection which was almost universal at the Burmese Court, but also the extremest contempt. For several years it had become apparent that the period was approaching when war between the British and the Burmese Governments would a second time become inevitable. The British Resident, Major Burney, who had been appointed in 1830, finding his presence at Ava agreeable neither to the king nor to himself, removed in 1837 to Rangoon, and shortly afterwards retired from the country. Ultimately it became necessary to forego even the pretence of maintaining relations of friendship; and the British functionary at that time, Captain Macleod, was properly withdrawn, in 1840, altogether from a country where his continuance would have been but a mockery. The state of sullen dislike which followed was after a while succeeded by more active evidences of hostility. Acts of violence were committed on British ships and British seamen. Remonstrance was consequently made by the British Government, and its envoys were supported by a small naval force. The officers on whom devolved the duty of representing the wrongs of their fellow-countrymen and demanding redress, proceeded to Rangoon, the governor of which place had been a chief actor in the outrages complained of; but so far were they from meeting with any signs of regret, that they were themselves treated with indignity and contempt, and compelled to retire without accomplishing anything beyond blockading the ports. A series of negotiations followed;

nothing was demanded of the Burmese beyond a very moderate compensation for the injuries inflicted on the masters of two British vessels, an apology for the insults offered by the Governor of Rangoon to the representatives of the British Government, and the re-establishment of at least the appearance of friendly relations by the reception of a British Agent by the Burmese Government. But the obduracy of the king—known as Pugán-meng, who had succeeded his father in 1846—led to the refusal alike of atonement for past wrongs, of any expression of regret for the display of gratuitous insolence, and of any indication of a desire to maintain friendship for the future. Another Burmese war was the result, the first shot being fired in January 1852. As in the former, though success was varying, the British finally triumphed, and the chief towns in the lower part of the Burmese kingdom fell to them in succession. The city of Pegu, the capital of that portion which, after having been conquered, had again passed into the hands of the enemy, was recaptured and retained; and the whole Province of Pegu was, by proclamation of the Governor-General, Lord Dalhousie, declared to be annexed to the British Dominions on the 20th December 1852. No treaty was obtained or insisted upon, the British Government being content with the tacit acquiescence of the King of Burma without such documents; but the resolution was declared, that any active demonstration of hostility by him would be followed by retribution.

About the same time a domestic revolution broke out which resulted in Pugán-meng's dethronement. His tyrannical and barbarous conduct had made him obnoxious at home as well as abroad, and indeed many of his actions recall the worst passages of the history of the later Roman emperors. His brother, the Prince of Mengdún, who had become apprehensive for his own safety, made him prisoner in February 1853, and was himself crowned King of Burma towards the end of the year. The late monarch, known as Mengdun-meng, showed himself sufficiently arrogant in his dealings with European powers; but was wise enough to keep free from any approach towards hostility, and, indeed, generally displayed a desire to live on peaceful terms with the Indian Government. The loss of Pegu was long a matter of bitter regret, and he absolutely refused to acknowledge it by a formal treaty. In the beginning of 1855 he sent a mission of compliment to Lord Dalhousie, the Governor-General; and in the summer of the same year, Major Arthur Phayre, *de facto* governor of the new Province of Pegu, was appointed envoy to the Burmese court. He was accompanied by Captain (now Colonel Sir) Henry Yule as secretary, and Mr. Oldham as geologist, and his mission added largely to our knowledge of the state of the country; but in its main object, of obtaining a treaty, it was unsuccessful. It was not until 1862 that the king at length yielded, so far as to conclude a treaty, at least, of commerce; since which

also a British Resident has been maintained at the capital. Much interest has been taken of recent years in the restoration of the trade between China and British Burma by the old routes overland, and various important journeys in elucidation of the problem have been successfully undertaken.

In 1867, a Treaty was signed by which British steamers were permitted to navigate Burmese waters, and the appointment of British agents at Bhamo or other stations for the supervision of trade was formally authorized; and in the following year a Government expedition, consisting of Captain Williams as surveyor, Dr. John Anderson as naturalist, and Captain Bowers and Messrs. Stewart and Burn as representatives of the commercial interests of Rangoon, was despatched under the leadership of Major Sladen, Political Agent at Mandalay. The royal steamer *Yenán-Sakyá* was placed by the King at the service of the expedition, and letters of recommendation were furnished to the Burmese officials, but in other respects scant courtesy was shown to the party. Escorted by fifty armed police, the explorers advanced in safety about 135 miles north-east of Bhamo to Momein or Teng-yue-Chow, a principal town of the Muhammadan insurgents, known to the Burmese as Panthays, then in possession of Western Yunan; but beyond this it was not allowed by the Muhammadan authorities to proceed, on account of the disturbed condition of the country. In 1869, Captain Strover was appointed first British Resident at Bhamo; and about the same time, the Irawadi Flotilla Company started a monthly steamer service to that town. The king's interest in the commercial development of his country was shown by his erecting and garrisoning a series of guard-houses through the dangerous parts of the Kakhyen Hills. In 1874, Lord Salisbury sent another expedition, consisting of Colonel Horace Browne, Mr. Ney Elias, and Dr. Anderson, with instructions to proceed, if possible, right across the country to Shanghai in China; and to ensure the success of the undertaking, Mr. Margary, a gentleman familiar with the Chinese language and customs, was commissioned to start from Shanghai and meet the party at Momein or the neighbourhood. The king's reception of the new mission, which arrived on December 23, 1874, at Mandalay, was favourable in the extreme. On the 15th of January 1875 the explorers reached Bhamo; and two days afterwards Mr. Margary arrived from Hankow. After the mission had proceeded to the banks of the Nampaung, a river which joins the Tapeng some distance east of Ponline, they heard rumours of hostile preparations in front; and Mr. Margary volunteered to proceed to Manwaing to ascertain the truth of the reports. On receiving from him word that the way was clear, his companions advanced; but on the 23d of February their camp was attacked by the Chinese, and they were ultimately compelled to retreat,

with the sad knowledge that their gallant pioneer had fallen at Manwaing by the hands of cowardly assassins. The Burmese officials stood nobly by the mission, though the enemy assured them that their quarrel was not with them but with the 'white devils.'

The King, who was known before his accession in 1853 as the Prince of Mendún, died in September 1878, and was succeeded by one of his sons, called the Theebaw or Thiobo Prince. The late King was on the whole, with all his faults, the best example of a Burmese sovereign with whom we have ever had to do. He was personally an orthodox and a devoted Buddhist, and largely under the influence of ecclesiastical advisers. Indeed, in 1874 he was re-crowned at Mandalay, in compliance with the requirements of a prophecy; and he made spasmodic attempts to enforce sumptuary laws in accordance with his creed. In his anxiety to raise a revenue, his monopolies and other interferences with trade were injurious to the prosperity of the country. Though some amount of suspicion in regard to British policy, not unnaturally perhaps, always lingered in the King's mind, and led him to devote a good deal of expense and thought to little purpose in endeavouring to cultivate a connection with other foreign powers, he generally acted in a friendly manner to the English who resided at his capital; and his reign was never stained with the abominable cruelties that were habitual under the reigns of his predecessors. He seemed to have a really humane character, and while some of his officials were hostile to European interests, the great mass of the people seem genuinely favourable. As much cannot be said of the present King.

C

Cáchár (*Káchár*).—A District in the Chief-Commissionership of Assam, lying between 24° 14′ and 25° 50′ N. lat., and between 92° 26′ and 93° 29′ E. long.; area, according to a recent revenue survey, 3750 square miles. The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 205,027; but the operations were confined to a tract of only 1285 square miles, altogether excluding the mountainous Subdivision of Asálu or North Cáchár. The administrative headquarters are at the town of SILCHAR.

The District is bounded on the north by the Baráil range, forming the watershed between the river systems of the Brahmaputra and the Barák, which separates it from the Nágá Hills; on the east by Manipur State; on the south by the hill country occupied by Lushái or Kukí tribes; on the west by the District of Sylhet. An Inner Line, in accordance with the regulations of the Bengal Eastern Frontier Act, was demarcated in 1875 along the southern frontier, across which British subjects are not allowed to pass without special permission.

History.—The name of Cáchár preserves the memory of one of the many kingdoms of indigenous origin which have at various times ruled over the greater part of Assam. When the last of the Cáchári Rájás died without heirs in 1830, the British took possession of the country. But the area then annexed to British India represented but a small portion of the territory once owned by the Cáchár dynasty. The Cáchári race is supposed to have first established itself, in the country that now goes by its name, in the beginning of the 18th century, having been gradually forced southwards from its original home. But their own traditions, combined with the ethnological affinities of the aboriginal tribes now inhabiting the valley of the Brahmaputra, show that the Cácháris must once have been a numerous and powerful people, dominant over the whole of Assam. No trustworthy records exist concerning this period of Cáchári supremacy. It is said to have preceded that of the Kochs, and the kingdom seems to have included some portion of Eastern Bengal. As a historical fact, the Cáchári Rájás are first found ruling in the hill country, now occupied by Nágá tribes, to the north of the Baráil watershed. Their capital was at Dimápur, where ruins of brick buildings are still to be discovered amid the dense jungle. Subsequently they were compelled to remove southward to Máibong, in a valley between two spurs of the Baráil range, also on the north side of the watershed. Fruit trees growing amid the jungle, and ruined temples of stone, prove that this settlement was of no short duration. It was at Máibong that the Cáchári court first came under the influence of Hinduism. The king is said to have married a daughter of the Rájá of Tipperah, with whom he received as dowry the upper valley of the Barák. Hindus from Bengal would naturally follow up the river from Sylhet, and missionary Bráhmans found their way to Máibong as the pioneers of civilisation. The Cácháris of this period appear as a declining and fugitive race. Their capital at Máibong was exposed to the aggressions of the Rájá of Jáintiá; and in the beginning of the 18th century, they crossed the Baráil range and settled at Káshpur among its southern spurs. Nor was this the last move. When the British first became acquainted with Cáchár, the residence of the Rájá was at Garhbeta, in Bikrámpur *parganá*, now the site of a tea-garden. When the Cácháris had thus transferred themselves to the Barák valley, the process of conversion to Hinduism went on apace. Up to that date they had retained their native forms of worship, consisting mainly of the superstitious dread of a multitude of evil spirits, who demanded to be propitiated with the occasional sacrifice of a human being. The formal act of conversion took place as recently as 1790. The reigning Rájá, together with his brother and heir, were placed inside the body of a large copper image of a cow, and thence produced by their Bráhman priests as Kshattriyás of the Rájbansí caste. The Barmans or members

of the Cáchári aristocracy adopted Hinduism at the same time; but the common people, at least those who occupy the original haunts of the race and are known as Dans or Parbattias, still retain their primitive religion, and repudiate the ceremonial restrictions of Hinduism. The further history of Cáchár is a continuous record of strife and decay. The last Rájá, Gobind Chandra, became involved in the struggle between the State of Manipur and the aggressive power of Burma, which had already established its supremacy in the Brahmaputra valley. The Burmese won the day, and Gobind Chandra was driven to take refuge in the British District of Sylhet. In 1826, as an incident in the first Burmese war, he was restored to his throne by a British force. But his allies did not remain long enough in the country to re-establish his authority. One of his subjects, Tularám Senápatí, the hereditary general of the Cáchárí army, revolted and succeeded in establishing his independence in North Cáchár. Finally, in 1830, Gobind Chandra was assassinated; and as he left no sons, the British took possession of Cáchár in accordance with a clause in the treaty of 1826. The Subdivision of North Cáchár was annexed in 1854, on the death of Tularám Senápatí, also without heirs. The most important events in the recent history of Cáchár are—the discovery of the tea-plant growing wild, in 1855; the dispersion of a body of mutinous Sepoys in 1857, who had made their way into the District from Chittagong (*see* CHITTAGONG DISTRICT); and the Lushái expedition of 1871-72, by which the perpetual inroads of the hill tribes on the southern frontier were effectually checked.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Cáchár occupies the upper portion of the valley of the Barák. It is surrounded on three sides by lofty ranges of hills, being only open on the west towards Sylhet. These mountain-barriers rise steeply from the narrow plain, overgrown with dense green jungle, and broken by a few hill torrents and white cascades. Besides this background of noble scenery, the valley itself presents a picturesque appearance. In the centre, from east to west, runs a wide-rolling stream, navigable by steamers, and dotted with many native craft. On both sides, from north and south, low spurs and undulating ridges run down almost to the water's edge, with fertile valleys between. These lower hills, and the many isolated knolls which rise up all over the valley, are now covered with trim tea-gardens—on the lower slopes the carefully kept rows of tea-bushes, always above flood level; half-way up, the coolie lines; on the summit, the planter's bungalow. The low lands, wherever possible, are under rice cultivation. The cottages of the people are buried in groves of tufted bamboo and shady fruit trees.

The following are the principal ranges of hills:—The Baráil range, forming the northern frontier, and varying in height from 2500 to 6000,

feet; and on the south of the Barák, the Bhubans, the Rengati Pahár, the Tilám, and the Sarispur or Siddheswar Hills, all running from south to north, with a height not exceeding 3000 feet. The Barák river runs a total course of about 130 miles through the District, first north and then west. Its bed is from 100 to 200 yards wide, and it is navigable throughout the year by boats of 20 tons burden. Its chief tributaries within the Cáchár District are—on the south bank, the Dhaleswari, together with its new channel known as the Kátákhál, the Ghágra, and the Sonái; on the north bank, the Jiri, the Játingá, the Madura, the Badrí, and the Chiri. The most important sheet of water in the District is the Chátlá Fen, a low-lying tract between the Rengati Pahár and Tilám hill ranges, which during the greater part of the year is drained by the Ghágra river; but in the rainy season, the rainfall on the surrounding hills, assisted by the floods of the Barák, turns the marsh into a navigable lake 12 miles in length and 2 miles broad.

No mines or minerals of any value are known to exist in Cáchár. Discoveries of coal have been frequently reported, but on examination the deposits have invariably turned out to be anthracite or lignite, not worth working. Petroleum also has been discovered, but not utilized. The local demand for salt was formerly met from salt-wells; but a cheaper and better supply is now obtained from Bengal, and the salt-wells are no longer worked. The great natural source of wealth to Cáchár lies in her forests, which are practically inexhaustible. The two most valuable timber-trees are *járul* (Lagerstrœmia reginæ) and *nágeswar* (Mesua ferrea). The tea-gardens require to be supplied with charcoal, and also with tea-boxes, which are largely manufactured at the Badarpur sawmill, turned by steam and water power. Boats, timber in logs, bamboos, canes, and thatching grass, are exported to Bengal in large quantities. The wood-cutters pay licences at the rate of 2s. per head, and tolls are levied at Siáltekh *ghát* on the Barák river. In 1876-77, a total area of 745 square miles was declared Forest Reserves, and placed under regulations for conservancy. In the same year the forests yielded a total revenue of £1618. Caoutchouc, the produce of Ficus elastica, is collected chiefly beyond the frontiers of the District. In 1876-77, the registered export of caoutchouc from the two Districts of Cáchár and Sylhet was 1015 *maunds*, valued at £5075. The wild animals found in the District include elephants, rhinoceros, buffaloes, the *metná* or wild cow, tigers, black bear, and many kinds of deer, including the *sámbhar* and the *bará singhá*. The right of capturing wild elephants is a valuable monopoly of Government. The *metná* or wild cow (Bos gavæus) is domesticated by the hill tribes and kept for sacrificial purposes. The animal chiefly used for agriculture is the buffalo.

Population.—No trustworthy estimate can be formed of the total popu-

lation living within the furthest limits of the District. The Census of 1872 was confined to an area of 1285 square miles, out of a total area of 3750 square miles. The results showed a total population of 205,027 persons living in this regularly settled tract, or an average of 160 to the square mile. The number of villages or *mauzás* was 389, and of houses, 37,311, showing an average of 527 persons per village and 5·5 per house. Classified according to sex, there were 110,373 males, and 94,654 females; proportion of males, 53·8 per cent. This large preponderance of males is due to the presence of the coolies on the tea gardens. Classified according to age, there are, under twelve years, 40,837 boys, and 32,873 girls; total, 73,710, or 36 per cent. of the total population. Classified according to religion, the Hindus, as loosely grouped together for religious purposes, number 128,219, or 62·5 per cent.; the Muhammadans, 74,361, or 36·3 per cent.; Buddhists, 49; Christians, 409, or ·2 per cent.; 'others,' 1989, or 1 per cent. Cáchár is a remote District, buried between lofty hills, which has but recently come under the influence of Hindu civilisation. The population is largely composed of the neighbouring hill tribes, included among the general mass of Hindus in the religious classification just given. The chief aboriginal tribes are — Manipurís, Cáchárís, Lusháis or Kukís, Nágás, Mikírs, and Khásiás; the majority of whom live beyond the settled tract in which the Census was taken. The number of immigrant coolies imported from Bengal in connection with the tea industry is estimated at 30,000 souls, of whom a few are Christians. Among the native population, the Manipurís, numbering 6093 in the settled portion of the District, occupy a prominent place. They have migrated from the State of Manipur within the past fifty years, and though the majority now rank as Hindus, some have adopted Islám. They are the pioneers of cultivation on the skirts of the jungle, and are an industrious, peaceable race. The women weave excellent cotton cloth, known as *Manipurí khesh*, which finds a market beyond the limits of the District; and also a kind of fine net, for mosquito curtains. The men manufacture brass vessels. The Lusháis or Kukís number 2173 souls in the settled part of the District. They are all recent immigrants from the southern hills, and the majority live along the southern frontier. There is, however, a settlement of 'Old Kukís,' as they are termed, on the north of the Barák river, whose origin is obscure. Since the retaliatory expedition of 1871-72, the Lusháis have uniformly maintained friendly relations with the British officers, and a valuable trade has been opened at certain fixed marts on the frontier.

The population of Cáchár is entirely engaged either in rice cultivation or on the tea-gardens. There are no towns with a population of more than 5000 souls. SILCHAR, the civil station and the headquarters of a regiment of Native Infantry, has (1872) only 3729 inhabitants. In con-

junction with the neighbouring villages, Silchár has been constituted a municipal union, with an income, in 1876-77, of £785; average rate of taxation, 4s. per head. A large trading fair is annually held here in January, attended by about 20,000 people. Other centres of trade are SONAI and SIALTEKH on the Barák; and Barkala, Udharband, and Lakshmipur, on the southern frontier.

An interesting bond of social organization is to be found in the *khéls* or primitive agricultural partnerships, which still retain their vitality, though not recognised in the system of British administration. These *khéls*, which differ in several important respects from the village communities of the rest of India, are variously explained either as a relic of the indigenous revenue system of the great Cáchárí kingdom, or as an invention of the Bengálí Hindus to protect themselves from the exactions of the Rájá. Properly speaking, each *khél* consists of a band of individuals, bound together by no real or fancied tie of blood, nor even by community of race or religion, but merely associated for purposes of common profit. For collection of revenue, the State did not look to the individual cultivator, but to the *mukhtár* or head-man of the *khél*, who was primarily responsible. At the same time, the members of the *khél* were held jointly and severally liable for the default of any of their number; and the property of a defaulter, in accordance with a principle still known as *ghosáwat*, was made over to the *khél* to which he belonged. A certain number of *khéls* were comprehended in a larger corporation, called a *ráj*. Such was the fiscal and agricultural system of Cáchár when the British took possession of the country in 1830. The conception of individual property, and separate liability for the Government revenue, has been gradually substituted for it; but the machinery of the *khél* still retains a strong hold upon the sentiments of the people, and is continually reappearing at the present day as an anomaly in the administration.

Agriculture.—The one staple crop of Cáchár is rice, which yields three harvests in the year—(1) the *áus*, or early harvest; (2) the *sáil* or *áman*, supplying by far the greater portion of the food supply; (3) the *ásrá* or *ek-fasli.* The *áman* crop is sown in nurseries in June, transplanted into low-lying fields in the following month, and reaped about December or January. The minor crops comprise mustard, linseed, pulses, sugar-cane, chillies, and vegetables. Cultivation has rapidly extended since the date of British annexation, but even at the present time a very small proportion of the total area is under tillage. In 1830, the total cultivated area was estimated at 29,000 acres. By 1875-76, the amount had risen to 257,285 acres, or nearly ninefold; but this is still only 10 per cent. of the total surveyed area of the District. Almost the whole cultivated area is under rice. The statistics of tea cultivation are given below. The land revenue is assessed by Government direct with the cultivators,

locally known as *mirásdárs*. The present term of assessment is for 20 years, which will expire in 1879. The rates fixed vary from 10d. to 1s. 5d. per acre for first-class land, and from 7d. to 1s. 3d. per acre for second-class land. Leases for a term of years, with favourable conditions, are granted for jungle reclamation. The animals used in agriculture are buffaloes and oxen. Manure is never used except for the sugar-cane crop. Irrigation is nowhere practised on an extensive scale; but in exceptional years, when the local rainfall is deficient, water is thrown upon the rice-fields out of the neighbouring marshes and artificial channels. Spare land is abundant, and the fields are never allowed to lie fallow as a deliberate stage in the process of agriculture, nor is any rotation of crops practised. The out-turn of rice varies from 11 cwts. to 30 cwts. per acre. Actual famine has never been known in Cáchár. Drought, flood, and blight occasionally occur, but not to such an extent as to affect the general harvest. The local production of rice is inadequate to satisfy the local demand, augmented by the large number of labourers on the tea-gardens. The deficiency is supplied from the neighbouring District of Sylhet, whence it is estimated that 300,000 *maunds* of rice are imported every year.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—Coarse cotton cloth is spun and woven by the male members of Hindu castes, and by the women of the hill tribes. The only special manufactures are a cotton cloth called *Manipurí khesh*, and a fine net, for mosquito curtains, both woven by the Manipurí women; and *purís* or rugs made by the Kukí women. At the village of Kátigára, there is a colony of Manipurí braziers. Most of the tea-boxes required on the gardens are made in the District, from the produce of the neighbouring jungles. A sawmill for this purpose, worked by water and steam, has recently been started near Badarpur.

The foreign trade of Cáchár is entirely conducted by water, passing by the Barák river through the neighbouring District of Sylhet. The Bengal registration returns for 1876-77 show a total export from Cáchár into Bengal valued at £509,554, against an import of £91,856. The chief items of export were—62,999 *maunds* of tea, valued at £503,992; and 275 *maunds* of caoutchouc, valued at £1375. The imports comprise—cotton piece-goods, £33,812; liquors, £11,061; tea-seed, £5213; iron, £5017; woollen goods, £4046. The import of rice from Sylhet escapes registration. The more valuable of the above commodities are carried in steamers, the more bulky goods in native boats. There are no large centres of trade in the District. The wants of the coolies are chiefly supplied by means of *bázárs* on the tea-gardens, and at two great large annual fairs, held at Silchár station and Siddheswar. A brisk trade is conducted with the Lusháí tribes on the southern frontier. Three recognised marts have been opened, to which the Lusháis bring down caoutchouc, cotton, ivory, wax, and *purí*

rugs, to exchange for rice, salt, tobacco, brass-ware, etc. The trade with Manipur is said to be on the decline. The local traffic of the District passes by road rather than by water. The enterprise of the tea planters has constructed, and now maintains, a very complete system of roads, by which communication is established between their gardens and the river Barák. In 1873, the number of miles of road open was 166, maintained at a cost of £3922.

Tea Cultivation and Manufacture. — The tea-plant was discovered growing wild in Cáchár in 1855, and the first grant of land for a tea-garden was made in the following year. Reckless speculation in the promotion of tea companies led to a severe depression, which reached its crisis about 1868; but, since that date, the industry has recovered itself, and now makes rapid and regular progress. In 1874, the total area taken up for tea by the gardens that furnished returns was 206,067 acres, of which 30,066 acres were under plant; the total out-turn was 5,974,829 lbs., showing an increase of 15 per cent. over the previous year; the average monthly number of labourers employed was 35,631, of whom 23,749 had been imported from Bengal. The land for tea-gardens has been acquired direct from Government, either on long leases or by sales in fee-simple. It is estimated that a total sum of £250,000 in coin and notes is annually introduced into the District in connection with this industry. A full account of the processes of cultivation of the plant and manufacture of the leaf will be found in the *Statistical Account of Assam*, vol. ii. pp. 434–445.

Administration.—In the year 1870-71, the total revenue of Cáchár District amounted to £36,711, and the expenditure to £25,291. The principal items among the receipts are—land revenue, £14,721; opium, £4283; excise, £3789; stamps, £2797; forest revenue, £1358. In 1872, the regular police force consisted of 488 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £8736. These figures show an average of one policeman to every 2·63 square miles, and to every 420 of the population; the average cost being £6, 16s. per square mile, and 10⅛d. per head of population. The District also maintains a municipal police in Silchár of 9 constables, and a body of rural watchmen or *chaukídárs*, supported by the villagers. In 1872, the total number of criminal cases investigated was 1333, in which 933 persons were tried and 558 convicted, being 1 person convicted of an offence to every 367 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. The jail at Silchár in 1872 contained an average daily number of 114·04 prisoners, including 6·09 females, being 1 prisoner to every 1797 of the population. The total cost of the jail was £1207, or an average of £10, 11s. 10d. per prisoner. Jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £353.

Within the last few years, education has made considerable progress.

in Cáchár, under the stimulus of Sir G. Campbell's reforms, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools. Between March 1872 and March 1873, the total number of schools in the District increased from 6 to 128, and the number of pupils from 211 to 2259. The figures for 1873 show 1 school to every 10 square miles, and 11 pupils to every thousand of the population. The total expenditure on education in that year amounted to £453, of which Government contributed £270.

For administrative purposes, Cáchár District is divided into 3 Subdivisions, with headquarters at Silchár, Háilákándi, and Asálu. The Silchár Subdivision is further divided into 3 *thánás* or police circles. For fiscal purposes, the settled portion of the District is divided into 3 *tahsíls*, comprehending 24 *parganás*. In 1870-71, there were 5 magisterial and 9 civil and revenue courts open, and 2 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Cáchár differs from that common to Eastern Bengal, in being less hot and more damp. The rainy season lasts from April to October, and during the remaining months of the year dense fogs are of frequent occurrence. The average mean temperature throughout the year is about 77° F., the range of variation being 32°. The average annual rainfall is 114 inches. As lying within the mountainous tract that bounds North-Eastern India, Cáchár is especially exposed to earthquakes. In January 1869, a shock of unusual severity occurred, which laid in ruins the greater part of the town of Silchár, changed the course of the rivers in several places, and did damage throughout the District to the estimated value of £50,000.

The prevailing diseases are fevers, diarrhœa, dysentery, cholera, and small-pox. Intermittent fever usually appears every year, after the cessation of the rains. Outbreaks of cholera are attributed to importation from Bengal, and it has been observed that the path of this epidemic regularly follows the course of the river and other lines of communication. In recent years, by reason of the spread of cultivation and the adoption of sanitary measures, the general health of the people has sensibly improved. The registration of vital statistics is very imperfectly carried out, even in the selected areas. In 1874, the death-rate returned for the town of Silchár was 8·3 per thousand, and for the rural area, 22·9 per thousand. There are 2 charitable dispensaries in the District, attended in 1874 by 570 in-patients and 2649 out-door patients; the total expenditure was £404, towards which Government contributed £54, besides the cost of European medicines.

Calastri.—*Zamíndárí* (estate) in the District of North Arcot, Madras. —*See* KALAHASTI.

Calcutta.—The capital of India, and seat of the Supreme Government; is situated on the east or left bank of the Húglí river, in lat.

22° 34′ 2″ N., and long. 88° 23′ 59″ E. It lies about 80 miles from the seaboard, and receives the accumulated produce which the two great river systems of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra collect throughout the Provinces of Bengal and Assam. From a cluster of three mud villages at the close of the 17th century, it has advanced with rapid growth to a densely inhabited metropolis, which, with its four suburbs, contains a population of close on 800,000 souls. The central portion, which forms the Calcutta municipality, has a population returned in 1876 at 429,535. In 1875, its maritime trade amounted to 54¼ millions sterling; but it fluctuates, according to the state of commerce, from over 50 to under 55 millions. Taking it at about 52 millions sterling, the exports form 31 millions, and the imports 21, showing an excess of exports over imports of about 10 millions sterling.

The History of Calcutta practically dates from the year 1686. In 1596, it had obtained a brief entry as a rent-paying village, 'Kalikata,' in the *Aín-i-Akbarí*, or Revenue Survey, executed by command of the Emperor Akbar. But it was not till ninety years later that it emerged into history. In 1686, the English merchants at Húglí, finding themselves compelled to quit their factory in consequence of a rupture with the Mughal authorities, retreated under their President, Job Charnock, to Sutánatí, about 26 miles down the river, a village on the east bank of the Húglí, now a northern quarter of Calcutta. Their new settlement soon extended itself along the river bank to the then village of Kalikata, between the present Customs House and the Mint; and afterwards to Govindpur, which lay on the southern glacis of the present Fort William. These three river-side hamlets (namely, Sutánatí, Kalikata, and Govindpur) have grown into the Capital of India. In 1689-90, the Bengal servants of the East India Company determined to make Calcutta their headquarters. In 1696 they built the original Fort William; and in 1700, they formally purchased the three villages of Sutánatí, Kalikata, and Govindpur from Prince Azím, son of the Emperor Aurangzeb.

The site thus chosen had an excellent anchorage, and was defended by the river from the Marhattás, who harried the Districts on the farther side. A fort, subsequently rebuilt on the Vauban principle, and a moat, designed in 1742 to surround the town, but never completed, combined with the natural position of Calcutta to render it one of the safest places for trade in India during the expiring struggles of the Mughal empire. It grew up without any fixed plan, and with little regard to the sanitary arrangements required for a city. Some parts lie beneath high-water mark on the Húglí, and its low level has rendered its drainage a most difficult problem. Until far on in the last century, the jungle and paddy fields closely hemmed in the European mansions with a circle of malaria. The vast plain (*maidán*),

with its gardens and promenades, where the fashion of Calcutta now displays itself every evening, was then a swamp during three months of each year; the spacious quadrangle known as Wellington Square was built upon a filthy creek. A legend relates how one-fourth of the European inhabitants perished in twelve months, and during seventy years the mortality was so great that the name of Calcutta was supposed by mariners to be derived from 'Golgotha,' the place of a skull.

In 1707, the East India Company declared Calcutta a separate Presidency, accountable only to the Directors in London. In 1710, it contained about 10,000 to 12,000 inhabitants. In 1717, after suffering many oppressions from the Muhammadan Governors of Bengal, the Calcutta Council obtained a confirmation of all their privileges from the Delhi Emperor, together with permission to purchase thirty-eight neighbouring villages, on both banks of the Húglí, to a distance of 10 miles down the river. In 1742, the native inhabitants, in terror of the Marhattá horse, who were then scouring Southern Bengal, 'requested and obtained permission to dig a ditch at their own expense round the Company's boundary,' a semicircle of 7 miles from Sutánatí on the north to Govindpur on the south. Three miles of it were excavated in six months; the alarm then passed off, and the 'Marhattá Ditch' remains unfinished to this day. Meanwhile, the Company was only the *zamíndár* or landholder of the Calcutta hamlets, paying a revenue to the Musalmán Nawáb, at first (1696) of £120, afterwards increased (1717) to £884. It had no power to enhance rents beyond Sicca Rs. 3 per *bígha*, say 20s. per acre. In 1752, Holwell calculated the population at 409,056; probably an excessive estimate.

The chief event in the history of Calcutta is the sack of the town and the capture of Fort William in 1756, by Suráj-ud-Daulá, the Nawáb of Bengal. The majority of the English officials took ship, and fled to the mouth of the Húglí river. The Europeans who remained were compelled, after a short resistance, to surrender themselves to the mercies of the young prince. The prisoners, numbering 146 persons, were driven at the point of the sword into the guard-room, a chamber scarcely 20 feet square, with but two small windows. Next morning only twenty-three were taken out alive, among them Mr. Holwell, the annalist of the 'Black Hole.' This event took place on June 20, 1756. The Muhammadans retained possession of Calcutta for about seven months; and during that brief period the name of the town was changed in official documents to Alínagar. In January 1757, the expedition despatched from Madras, under the command of Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, regained possession of the city. They found many of the houses of the English residents demolished, and others damaged by fire. The old church of St. John's lay in ruins. The native portion of the town had also suffered much. Everything of value had been swept

away, except the merchandise of the Company within the Fort, which had been reserved for the Nawáb. The battle of Plassey was fought on June 23, 1757, just twelve months after the capture of Calcutta. Mir Jafár, the nominee of the English, was created Nawáb of Bengal; and by the Treaty which raised him to this position he agreed to make restitution to the Calcutta merchants for their losses. The English received £500,000, the Hindus and Muhammadans, £200,000, and the Armenians, £70,000. By another clause in this treaty the Company was permitted to establish a mint, the visible sign in India of territorial sovereignty; and the first coin, which, however, still bore the name of the Delhi Emperor, was issued on August 19, 1757. The restitution money was divided among the sufferers by a committee of respectable inhabitants. Commerce rapidly revived, and the ruined city was rebuilt. Modern Calcutta dates from 1757. The old fort was abandoned, and its site devoted to the Customs House and other Government offices. A new fort, the present Fort William, was commenced by Clive, at a short distance lower down the river Húglí than the old one. It was not finished till 1773, and is said to have cost 2 millions sterling. At this time, also, the *maidán*, the park of Calcutta, was formed; and the salubrity of its position induced the European inhabitants gradually to shift their dwellings eastward, and to occupy what is now the Chauringhi (Chowringhee) quarter.

From that time, the history of Calcutta presents a smooth narrative of prosperity. No outbreak of civil war nor any episode of disaster has disturbed its progress, nor have the calamities incident to the climate ever wrought mischief which could not be easily repaired. The great park (*maidán*), intersected by roads, and ornamented by a public garden, stretches along the river bank. The fort rises from the *maidán* on its western side, and defends it from the river approach; the stately mansions of Chauringhi line its eastern flank; while Government House, the Gothic High Court, the domed Post Office, and other splendid public buildings, tower in fine architectural masses at its northern end. Beyond the European quarter lie the densely populated clusters of huts or 'villages' which compose the native city and suburbs. Several fine squares, with large reservoirs and gardens, adorn the city, and broad, well-metalled streets connect its various extremities. A well-organized Sanitary Department now endeavours to introduce cleanliness into the native quarter. The old contrast which travellers have recorded between European Calcutta as a city of palaces, and native Calcutta as a city of filth, is no longer so strongly marked. On the one hand, the English houses are less splendid; on the other, the native *bastis* are cleaner and more commodious. This change has of late years gone on so rapidly, that it may be well to extract from the Census Report the following descriptions of Calcutta by four eye-

witnesses during the second half of the last century and early in the present one.

Calcutta in the last century.—Towards the end of the last century, the native town, which then as now lay apart from the English quarter, was thus described :—

'It is a truth that, from the western extremity of California to the eastern coast of Japan, there is not a spot where judgment, taste, decency, and convenience are so grossly insulted as in that scattered and confused chaos of houses, huts, sheds, streets, lanes, alleys, windings, gutters, sinks, and tanks, which, jumbled into an undistinguished mass of filth and corruption, equally offensive to human sense and health, compose the capital of the English Company's Government in India. The very small portion of cleanliness which it enjoys is owing to the familiar intercourse of hungry jackals by night, and ravenous vultures, kites, and crows by day. In like manner it is indebted to the smoke raised in public streets, in temporary huts and sheds, for any respite it enjoys from mosquitoes, the natural production of stagnated and putrid waters.'

Nine years later, Grandpré thus describes the town :—

'As we enter the town, a very extensive square opens before us, with a large piece of water in the middle for the public use. The pond has a grass plot round it, and the whole is enclosed by a wall breast-high with a railing on the top. The sides of this enclosure are each nearly 500 yards in length. The square itself is composed of magnificent houses, which render Calcutta not only the handsomest town in Asia, but one of the finest in the world. One side of the square consists of a range of buildings occupied by persons in civil appointments under the Company, such as writers in the public offices. Part of the side towards the river is taken up by the old fort, which was the first citadel built by the English after their establishment in Bengal.

'Calcutta abounds with all sorts of carriages, chariots, whiskies, and phaetons, which occasion in the evening as great a bustle as in one of the principal towns in Europe. On the other hand, such animals as die in the streets or in the houses are thrown into the drains, and they lie there and putrefy. From want, sickness, or accident, many a poor wretch of the human species also expires in the streets. I have seen the body of a poor creature, lying dead at my door, serve two nights for food to the jackals.'

In 1803, Lord Valentia remarked :—'The town of Calcutta is at present well worthy of being the seat of our Indian Government, both from its size and from the magnificent buildings which decorate the part of it inhabited by Europeans. Chowringhee is an entire village of palaces, and altogether forms the finest view I ever beheld in any city. The Black Town, however, is as complete a contrast to this as

can well be conceived. Its streets are narrow and dirty, but the houses of two storeys, occasionally brick, but generally mud and thatched, perfectly resembling the cabins of the poorest class in Ireland.'

'The universal custom of the natives,' writes Price, 'when they obtain a small spot on which to build a hut, is to dig a hole, raise one part of the ground with the earth from the other, and make the walls of their house of the same materials from the same place, and then cover it with straw tied on reeds or split bamboos; the hole in the ground is made smooth, and as deep as they can, and when the periodical rains set in, it becomes a little pond or tank, in which they wash their bodies and clothes, as directed by their religion. Vegetation is so quick and powerful, and shade so necessary, that in six months' time the little hut is absolutely hid from the eyes, and almost from the knowledge of everybody but the inhabitants of neighbouring huts. A little path of a foot or two broad is all those harmless people want to go from home into the common highway leading to the public market. Thousands of these huts are run up wherever they are permitted to build near European settlements. . . . Much ground was cleared to make room for a new fort; many thousand huts thrown into the holes from whence they had been taken, to form roads and an esplanade; but every man who lost a hut had ground given him on which to make another, and always of more extent and more value than what had been taken away from him.

'Much was done by Governor Vansittart, Lord Clive, Governor Verelst, Governor Cartier, and Governor Hastings, to cleanse the town and make it wholesome and convenient. When Mr. Hastings came to the government, he added some new regulations, and gave a degree more power to the officers of police, divided the Black and White Town into thirty-five wards, and purchased the consent of the natives to go a little farther off.

'There are no stones, gravel, or other hard substances within 50 leagues of Calcutta with which to mend the roads. Burnt and broken bricks are all the materials we have, and very expensive they are; for lay them down as thick as you will, so rotten is the soil that in two years' time they will be sunk a fathom deep. With Mr. Francis came the Judges of the Supreme Court, the laws of England, partial oppression, and licentious liberty; . . . and the natives were made to know that they might erect their *chappor* (thatched) huts in what part of the town they pleased. . . . Every man permitted his own servants to erect straw huts against the outside of his house, but without digging holes, to prevent more disagreeable neighbours from occupying the spot. All distinction of character and order was thrown down, as much as if there had been a civil war in the town; and in fact there

was a civil and a judicial war too, for the Council-General and Supreme Court, who both arrived at the same time, went together by the ears about their different powers, and every inhabitant in the town, black and white, did that which seemed best to be done in his own eyes.

'In August and September, the waters from the inland Provinces come down, in consequence of the heavy periodical fall of rain, in such inundations that at the high water at Calcutta, which is twice in twenty-four hours, the level of the lower part of the town is four feet below the surface of the river. At this time of the year it rains incessantly, and all the lower floors of common houses are under water, except such as stand near to the old fort, or where the first European houses were built.'

Calcutta as the Capital of India.—Until 1707, when Calcutta was first declared a Presidency, it had been dependent upon the older English Settlement at Madras. From 1707 to 1773, the Presidencies were maintained on a footing of equality. But in the latter year, an Act of Parliament was passed, which provided that the Presidency of Bengal should exercise a control over the other possessions of the Company; that the chief of that Presidency should be styled Governor-General; and that a supreme court of judicature should be established at Calcutta. In the previous year, 1772, Warren Hastings had taken under the immediate management of the Company's servants the general administration of Bengal, which had hitherto been left in the hands of the old Muhammadan officials, and had removed the treasury from Murshidábád to Calcutta. The latter town thus became both the capital of Bengal and the seat of the Supreme Government in India. In 1834, the Governor-General of Bengal was created Governor-General of India, and was permitted to appoint a Deputy Governor to manage the affairs of Lower Bengal during his occasional absence. But it was not until 1854 that a separate head was appointed for Bengal, who, under the style of Lieutenant-Governor, exercises the same powers in civil matters as those vested in the Governors in Council of Madras or Bombay, although subject to closer supervision by the Supreme Government. Calcutta is thus at present the seat both of the Supreme and the Provincial Government, each with an independent set of offices. Government House, the official residence of the Governor-General of India, or Viceroy, is a magnificent pile rising to the north of the fort and the great park, *maidán*, built by Lord Wellesley in 1804. The official residence of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal is a house called Belvedere, in Alípur, the southern suburb of Calcutta. Proposals have been made from time to time to remove the seat of the Supreme Government from Calcutta. Its unhealthiness, especially in the rainy season, its remoteness from the centre of Hindustán, and its distance from England, have each been animadverted upon. These disadvantages of Calcutta have now, however, been almost entirely

removed, or their consequences have been mitigated, by the conquests of science and modern engineering. The railway and the telegraph have brought the Viceroy at Calcutta into close contact with every corner of India; while an ample water supply, improved drainage, and other sanitary reforms, have rendered Calcutta the healthiest city in the East,—healthier, indeed, than some of the great European towns. English civilisation has thus enabled Calcutta to remain the political capital of India. The same agency still secures to the city her monopoly of the sea-borne trade of Bengal. The river Húglí has long ceased to be the main channel of the Ganges; but Calcutta alone of all the successive river capitals of Bengal has overcome the difficulties incident to its position as a deltaic centre of commerce. Strenuous efforts of engineering are required to keep open the 'Nadiyá rivers,' namely, the three offshoots of the Ganges which combine to form the Húglí. Still greater watchfulness and more extensive operations are demanded by the Húglí itself below Calcutta, to save it from the fate of other deltaic streams, and prevent it from gradually silting up. In 1853, the deterioration of the Húglí channel led to a proposal to found an auxiliary port to Calcutta on the Matlá, another mouth of the Ganges. A committee, then appointed to inquire into the subject, reported that 'the river Húglí was deteriorating gradually and progressively.' At that time 'science had done nothing to aid in facilities for navigation,' but since then everything has been effected which the foresight of modern engineering could suggest, or the power of modern capital could achieve. Observations on the condition of the river are taken almost hourly, gigantic steam dredgers are continually at work, and the shifting of the shoals is carefully recorded. By these means the port of Calcutta has been kept open for ships of the largest tonnage drawing 26 feet, and almost seems to have outlived the danger which threatened it.

Population.—Calcutta may, in one sense, be said to extend across the Húglí, and to include Howrah on the western side of the river, as well as the three separate municipalities on the eastern bank, known as 'the Suburbs of Calcutta,' 'the North Suburban Town,' and 'the South Suburban Town.' The total population of the area thus defined was returned by the Census of 1872 at 892,429 souls, arranged thus:—The City of Calcutta, 447,601; Suburbs of Calcutta, 257,149; North Suburban Town, 27,263; South Suburban Town, 62,632; Howrah, on other side of river, 97,784; total, 892,429. As will be stated presently, the figures for the town of Calcutta were not altogether trustworthy, and had to be revised by a special Census in 1876, which disclosed a population for the 'town' of only 429,535, instead of 447,601, as shown above by the Census of 1872. Including suburbs, the population of Calcutta in 1876, was returned at 794,645.

THE TOWN OF CALCUTTA.'—Calcutta proper, or the central portion, known as the municipality or 'Town of Calcutta,' and lying, roughly speaking, between the old Marhattá Ditch and the Húglí, is governed by a distinct municipality. In 1710, the population was reckoned at from 10,000 to 12,000. In 1752, Mr. Holwell estimated the number of houses within its limits at 51,132, and the inhabitants at 409,056 persons, but both these estimates must have been far too high. In 1822, the number of inhabitants was returned at 179,917, but according to another calculation at 230,552; in 1831, at 187,081; in 1850, at 361,369; and in 1866, at 377,924. In 1872, a regular Census was taken, under the supervision of the municipality. The results presented features of doubtful accuracy. They were as follows:—Area, 8 square miles: number of houses, 38,864: population, 447,601; being Hindus, 291,194; Muhammadans, 133,131; Buddhists, 869; Christians, 21,356; 'other' denominations not separately classified, 1051; total of males of all denominations, 299,857; females, 147,744; average number of persons per house, 11; number of persons per square mile, 55,950; total population of 'Town,' 447,601.

Census of 1876.—In 1876, a fresh Census was taken, with improved machinery, and the following results were obtained; the total population for the Town of Calcutta, exclusive of its suburbs, being 429,535:—

ABSTRACT OF THE POPULATION OF THE TOWN OF CALCUTTA, EXCLUSIVE OF SUBURBS, ON THE 6TH APRIL 1876.

	Total.	Males.	Females.
Town of Calcutta, ...	409,036	262,455	146,581
Fort William, ...	2,803	2,408	395
Port of Calcutta, ...	17,696	17,643	53
Total, ...	429,535	282,506	147,029

The Governing Body was created by Act vi. of 1863 (Bengal Council), and remodelled by subsequent legislation a few years ago, on a basis of popular election. It consists of a body of Justices of the Peace or Commissioners, a certain number of whom are returned by the ratepayers, while the remainder are nominated by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. The native element is largely represented in this body. A salaried chairman, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor from the Covenanted Civil Service, directs the whole, aided by a deputy chairman and other subordinates elected by the justices themselves. The Justices or Commissioners receive no pay. In 1874, the

ordinary revenue of the municipality amounted to £240,656, of which £160,000 was raised by rates, and £37,000 by licences. The ordinary expenditure for the same year amounted to £233,374, of which £80,000 was devoted to interest on loans and sinking fund, £32,000 to general expenses, £30,000 to roads, two items of £22,000 to lighting and water supply, and £13,000 to conservancy. Including capital account receipts, loans, suspense account, and cash balances, the total amount at the disposal of the justices during the year was £433,938. The aggregate expenditure under both revenue and capital account amounted to £382,823. The total loan liabilities of the corporation were £1,466,060, and the total of interest and sinking fund payable yearly, £100,474. Municipal income in 1877, £285,692; expenditure, £289,844; average rate of municipal taxation per head, 11s. 4¾d. The length of roads in the town is about 150 miles.

The Water Supply forms the most important undertaking under the care of the municipality. The present system dates from 1865, when the sanction of Government was given to the construction of works which now pour upwards of 6 million gallons a day of filtered water into the city. The source of supply is from the Húglí at Paltá, about 16 miles above Calcutta. The works there consist of two large suction pipes, 30 inches in diameter, through which the water is drawn from the river by three engines, each of 50 horse power nominal. The water is then passed into six settling tanks, each 500 feet long by 250 feet wide. Here it is allowed to stand for 36 hours, when it is permitted to run off to the filters, eight in number, the area of each being 200 by 100 feet. After filtration, the water is made to flow over a marble platform, where its purity can be observed. It is then conducted to Calcutta by a 42-inch iron main. These works cost £525,432. They were finished in 1870, and connected with pipes laid under 100 miles of streets. The total number of house connections up to December 31, 1874, was 8159. The total quantity of water delivered during that year amounted to 2,524,566,300 gallons, being considerably over the estimated average of 6 million gallons daily, or about 16 gallons per head of the population. The total cost for the same year of the water supply (inclusive of interest) was £55,547, or about 5d. per thousand gallons.

The Drainage Works are on an equally effective scale. The main sewers are underground; and for the proper discharge of their contents in the direction of the Salt Lake, a pumping station is maintained at an annual cost of £3000. The system of underground drainage, although not entirely completed, had cost in 1874 a capital sum of £620,000. In 1863, on the constitution of the present municipality, a health officer with an adequate establishment was appointed. The practice of throwing corpses into the river has been put down, and the

burning *gháts* and burial-grounds have been placed under supervision. All refuse and night-soil are removed by the municipality, and conveyed by a special railway to the Salt Lake. The town is lighted by a private gas company, 2723 gas lamps and 730 oil lamps being paid for at the public expense (1874). The fire brigade consisted of two steam fire-engines, and five hand engines, its annual cost being about £2000.

The Police of Calcutta is under the control of the Commissioner, who is also the Chairman of the Justices. Beneath him there is a Deputy Commissioner. The force consisted in 1873 of 4 superintendents, 155 subordinate officers of various grades, 1292 constables, and 6 mounted constables, maintained at a yearly cost of £41,227, of which Government contributed one-fourth. Several minor bodies, such as the river police, Government guards, etc., raise the entire strength of the force in the town and on the river to 2313 men. The great majority are natives, the number of European sergeants and constables being only 50.

The Statistics of Education in Calcutta in 1873 were as follows:—There were 3 Government colleges, namely, the Presidency College, founded in 1855, and attended by 709 pupils; the Sanskrit College, established in 1824, attended by 26 adult pupils, of whom 17 were Bráhmans; the Calcutta Madrásá or Muhammadan College, founded in 1781, number of pupils 528. There were also 5 colleges mainly supported by missionary efforts, aided by Government, and attended by 305 pupils. The total number of schools in Calcutta reported on in 1873 by the Educational Department was 260, with 19,445 scholars; 157 of them were male schools, teaching 16,155 boys; the remaining 103 are for girls, and teach 3290 pupils. According to a different principle of classification, 36 schools taught English to 9445 boys, 121 taught the vernacular only to 6620 boys, 99 were vernacular schools for girls with 3244 pupils, and 4 were normal schools, instructing 90 male teachers and 46 female. Of the total number of pupils in these schools, 47·7 per cent. were returned as Hindus, 13·5 Christians, 2·6 Musalmáns, while the remaining 36·2 per cent. were of unascertained religions. The total ascertained expenditure was £25,011, of which sum the Government contributed £9160. The Government School of Art was attended in 1872-73 by 94 students, of whom 88 were Hindus, 4 Musalmáns, and 2 Eurasians. Calcutta has also an important school of medicine, or medical college, with a large hospital attached, and every facility for a thorough scientific training.

The Medical Charities of Calcutta comprise the Medical College Hospital, the General Hospital, the Mayo Hospital (for natives only), the Municipal Pauper Hospital, and minor dispensaries. The General Hospital is confined almost solely to Europeans. The total amount contributed by Government to these institutions is over £30,000.

The number of persons treated during the year 1872-73 was 251,039, of whom 20,805 were in-door patients. Of these, 64·9 per cent. were men, 16·3 women, and 18·8 children. The rate of mortality in cholera cases was 484·3 for every thousand treated.

Mortuary Returns are collected in Calcutta by the police inspectors, and compared with the registers kept by paid clerks of the municipality at the burning *gháts* and burial-grounds. In 1873, the total number of deaths thus ascertained was 11,557, or 25·82 per thousand. The death-rate among the Christians was 31·5, among the Hindus, 26·1, and among the Muhammadans, 24·7. The highest death-rate was in January, November, and December, and the lowest in June and July.

The Mean Temperature of Calcutta is about 79° F. The highest temperature recorded during the last 18 years is 106° in the shade, and the lowest 52·7°. The extreme range is therefore a little over 53° F., while the mean temperatures of December and May, the coldest and hottest months, are 68·5° and 85° respectively. The average rainfall during 36 years has been 66 inches,—the highest rainfall on record being 93·31 inches in 1871, and the lowest 43·61 inches in 1837. By far the greater part of the rain falls between the months of June and October.

Cyclones.—Like the rest of the seaboard of the Bay of Bengal, Calcutta is exposed to periodical cyclones, which do much mischief. The greatest pressure of the wind registered is 50 lbs. to the square foot. In the storms of 1864 and 1867, the anenometer was blown away. A great loss of life and property was caused along the Húglí by the storm of October 5, 1864. In Calcutta and its suburbs, 49 persons were killed and 16 wounded, 102 brick houses were destroyed and 563 severely damaged; 40,698 tiled and straw huts were levelled with the ground. The destruction of shipping in the port of Calcutta appears greatly to have exceeded that on record in any previous storm. Out of 195 vessels only 23 remained uninjured, and 31, with an aggregate tonnage of 27,653 tons, were totally wrecked. On November 2, 1867, the force of the wind was not less violent, but there was no storm wave, and consequently the amount of damage done was much less.

The Port of Calcutta, extending 10 miles along the Húglí, with an average width of working channel of 250 yards, and with moorings for 169 vessels, is under the management of a body of 9 European gentlemen styled 'Commissioners for making Improvements in the Port of Calcutta.' This body was constituted in 1870, and has since that date received considerable additions to its powers. In 1871, they were also appointed 'Bridge Commissioners,' to take charge of the floating bridge then being constructed over the Húglí, and to work it

when completed. This bridge, finished in 1874, now supplies a permanent connection between Calcutta and the railway terminus on the Howrah side of the river. It is constructed on pontoons, and affords a roadway for foot travellers and vehicles. A section of it is opened at fixed hours, so as to allow vessels to pass up the Húglí beyond it. The traffic returns for 41 weeks in 1875 were £7593; the cost of the bridge had been £220,000. The main duty of the Port Commissioners has hitherto consisted in providing accommodation, by jetties and warehouses, for the shipping and native boats, which carry on the great and increasing trade of Calcutta.

In 1873-74, the income of the Port Commissioners from all sources was £114,709, and the expenditure, £78,260. The total amount of capital expended up to that year was £580,339, including a debt of £400,123. In 1727, the whole shipping of the port was estimated at 10,000 tons. In 1759, 30 vessels sailed from Calcutta, aggregating 3964 tons burthen. During the 11 months ending April 1812, the total trade, both export and import, amounted to 9½ millions sterling, carried on by 600 vessels aggregating 150,000 tons. The number of vessels arriving and departing in 1861-62 was 1793, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,337,632 tons; in 1873-74, the number of vessels was 1927, tonnage 2,437,447. The number of steamers, and especially of steamers passing through the Suez Canal, is greatly on the increase.

Sea-borne Commerce.—The growth of the trade of Calcutta is shown by the following figures:—In 1820-21, the total value of exports and imports, including treasure, was £10,454,910; in 1830-31, £8,756,382; in 1840-41, £15,202,697; in 1850-51, £18,754,025; in 1860-61, £31,794,671; in 1870-71, £49,316,738; in 1874-75 (the year before the last local Census), £54,288,555. The value of the customs duties (including salt) was in 1820-21, £151,817; in 1830-31, £121,321; in 1840-41, £495,515; in 1850-51, £1,038,365; in 1860-61, £2,270,654; in 1870-71, £3,548,926. Cotton goods first became an important article of import in 1824; oil-seeds were first exported in 1835; the exports of jute on a great scale date from 1860, those of tea from 1864. Among the chief articles of import in 1870-71 (the year before the last general Census) were—apparel, value £186,767; beer, £140,859; coal, £109,185; cotton manufactured, £11,624,712; machinery, £194,198; metals, £1,311,547; railway materials, £710,357; salt, £652,632; spices, £150,150; spirits, £162,635; wine, £214,191; wood, £156,903; woollen manufactures, £347,116; treasure, £2,255,244; Government shipments, £981,557; total value of imports, £21,198,478. The chief articles of export were—cotton, £2,020,159; cotton, manufactured, £811,825; dyeing materials, £153,113; grain and pulse, £2,630,451; hides and skins, £1,573,655; indigo, £2,285,202; jute, £2,585,390; jute manufactured, £664,898; lac,

£194,576; metals, £215,920; opium, £5,490,395; saltpetre, £440,133; seeds, £2,921,117; silk, £1,508,801; silk manufactured, £244,076; spices, £215,018; sugar, £674,149; tea, £1,117,712; tobacco, £152,716; woollen manufactures, £136,052; bullion and treasure, £1,021,638; Government treasure, £228,534; total value of exports, £28,118,260.

The Landward Trade of Calcutta is conducted partly by railway, and partly by water traffic. There is no railway station within the limits of the municipality, but three separate railways have their termini in its immediate neighbourhood. The East Indian Railway, whose terminus is across the river at Howrah, brings down the produce of the North-Western Provinces and Behar, and connects Calcutta with the general railway system of the Peninsula. The Eastern Bengal Railway and the South-Eastern Railway have their terminus at Siáldah, an eastern suburb of Calcutta. The Eastern Bengal Railway is an important line running across the Delta to the junction of the Ganges and Brahmaputra at Goálandá, now continued towards Dárjíling by the Northern Bengal State line. The South-Eastern Railway is a short railway, intended to connect the metropolis with Port Canning, in the Sundarbans. The three chief lines of water traffic are—(1) the Calcutta canals, a chain of channels and rivers passing round and through the Sundarbans, open at all seasons of the year, and affording the main line of communication with the Ganges and the Brahmaputra; (2) the Nadiyá rivers, three in number, which branch off in a southern course from the Ganges, above its junction with the Brahmaputra, and ultimately become the Húglí—these Nadiyá rivers are with difficulty navigable during the dry season; (3) the Midnapur and Hijili canals, leading south towards Orissa. The import trade, which thus finds its way from the interior into Calcutta, exclusive of opium and railway materials, was valued at £26,671,090 in 1876-77. Ten millions sterling were brought by country boats, 2½ millions by river steamers, 10 millions by the East Indian Railway, 3 millions sterling by the Eastern Bengal Railway, 1 million sterling by road. The most important of the commodities thus brought into Calcutta from the interior were—rice, £3,570,000; tea, £2,900,000; jute, £2,490,000; indigo, £2,390,000; linseed, £1,980,000; mustard seed, £1,020,000; wheat, £1,290,000; and silk, £1,130,000. The export trade from Calcutta into the interior of the country was valued in 1876-77 at £19,535,510. Of goods thus sent inland, 4¼ millions sterling went by country boats, £800,000 by river steamers, 11½ millions by the East Indian Railway, 2½ millions by the Eastern Bengal Railway, and £380,000 by road. The most important exports from Calcutta into the interior were—European cotton piece-goods, 10½ millions in 1876-77; salt, £3,430,000; and European cotton twist, £1,124,000. In the foregoing article it

has not been possible to give, from the available materials, the statistics uniformly for one year. But it will be found that they group themselves round 1871-72, the year of the last general Census; and 1876, the year of the last local Census for 'The Town of Calcutta.' They must be taken, as a whole, to represent facts concerning Calcutta during the period of five years, from 1871-72 to 1876-77.

Calián.—Site of an old town in Malabar District, Madras, which arose out of a factory built by the first Portuguese settlers. The railway station of BEYPUR now occupies the spot where the factory stood.

Calián.—Town, Tanna District, Bombay.—*See* KALYAN.

Calicut (*Kolikódu*).—*Táluk* in Malabar District, Madras. Houses, 37,595. Pop. (1871), 189,768, representing an increase of 18 per cent. since 1867, and comprising—143,429 Hindus (Sivaites, 142,554); 44,005 Muhammadans (all Sunnis); and 2334 Christians. Chief town, CALICUT.

Calicut (*Kolikódu; Koli-kukága*, 'Cock-crowing;' *Koli-kotah*, 'Cock-fort').—Municipal town and port in the Calicut *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras; situated on the sea-coast 6 miles north of Beypur, in the midst of extensive palm groves. Lat. 11° 15′ N., long. 75° 49′ E. Houses, 9005. Population (estimated at 20,000 in 1827) had risen by 1871 to 48,338, comprising—30,274 Hindus; 15,837 Muhammadans (all Moplás); and 2227 Christians. Of the adult male population of 11,983, 32 per cent. are *shanars* or toddy drawers, 20 per cent. boatbuilders and boatmen, and 14 per cent. *lubbay* traders. The municipal area extends over 8160 acres, of which 5341 are occupied by houses and gardens, and 2819 are under cultivation. The municipal income for 1875-76 was £3660, and the expenditure £3616, the incidence of municipal taxation being about 1s. 6d. per head. Value of exports in 1875-76, including those of the sub-port of Beypur, £688,113—imports, £384,019; 6 per cent. of the total being dutiable goods. The port dues amounted during the year to £1414. As the headquarters of the rich and populous District of Malabar, Calicut contains the chief revenue, magisterial, and judicial establishments of the District, with Government and marine offices, a customs house, salt depôt, jail, lunatic asylum, dispensary, hospitals, post and telegraph offices, travellers' bungalow, and bank. The Anglican, Lutheran, and Roman Catholic Churches have missions here, with schools; in addition to which there is the municipal school, and several others, assisted by grants. Owing to frequent Moplá outrages, a detachment of European infantry was stationed at Calicut in 1849. It was removed to the outpost at Maliápuram in 1851, but again brought back on the assassination of the collector (Mr. Conolly) in 1855. The barracks stand to the north of the town, as also is the old Portuguese quarter with a

Roman Catholic church built by the Zamorin and presented to Portugal in 1525 A.D., and a convent. The southern portion contains the timber depôt (*Kalai*) and the Moplá quarter, above which lie the sea-customs and salt offices, the lighthouse and mercantile houses, facing the sea. Round the Mananchera tank, a fine reservoir of fresh water, are grouped the chief public offices and many important buildings. The suburbs consist of detached villages joining Calicut to Beypur, and surrounded with groves of palm, mango, and jack (Artocarpus) trees. The climate is fairly healthy, and, the soil being sandy, the deficiency of artificial drainage is not injuriously felt. The average annual rainfall is 120 inches.

The foundation of Calicut is traditionally ascribed to Cheruman Perumal, the lord of Malabar, whose conversion to Islám and departure for Mecca figures so prominently in the legends of that country. On Cheruman's subsequent retirement to Mecca, Calicut was granted by him to Maun Vikrima, the 'Sumuri' or Zamorin. Tradition derives the name from the device employed for deciding the limits of the settlement—so much as the crowing of a cock in the Talil Temple could be heard over. The present town dates from the 13th century, and has given its name to the cloth known to the Portuguese as calicute, to the English as calico. The Zamorins rose to great power, extending their dominions, with the aid of the Moors or Moplás, both south and east; and the capital is described by the earliest Portuguese visitors as containing many magnificent buildings. The Moplás, so conspicuous in local history, are the descendants of Arab traders—13 in number, according to their own traditions—who settled in the 9th century at Chalium on the Beypur river.

Calicut is celebrated as having been the first port in India visited by Europeans, the Portuguese adventurer Covilham having landed here about 1486. In 1498, Vasco da Gama arrived at Calicut, but at the instigation of the Moplás he was inhospitably received by the Zamorin. In 1501, Pedralvarez Cabral established a factory, which was immediately afterwards destroyed by the Moplás, and the whole colony of 50 persons massacred. Cabral bombarded the town; and in the following year Da Gama returned to complete the punishment, destroying all the shipping in the roadstead, and laying all the houses within range of his guns in ruins. In 1510, Albuquerque again attacked Calicut, burnt the Zamorin's palace, and wrecked the town; but the natives, rallying in overwhelming force, drove him back to Cochin with great loss. Three years later, the Zamorin made peace with the Portuguese, who at once erected a factory, the origin of the present establishment. The French settlement dates from 1722, since which year it has been three times in British possession. In 1817, it was finally restored with Mahé to the French, who still hold a few houses and the land

adjoining. The Danish Government established a factory in 1752. It was partially destroyed in 1784, and soon after incorporated in the British settlement. An unsuccessful attempt was made in 1792 to re-establish the claims of Denmark. The first British settlement dates from 1616; but it was not until the treaty of Seringapatam in 1792 that the Company acquired any sovereign rights. Between those dates Calicut was often conspicuous in history. In 1695, Captain Kidd ravaged the port; and in 1766, when Haidar Alí invaded Malabar, the Zamorin shut himself up in his palace and set fire to it, dying with his family in the flames. In 1733, and again in 1788, the town was pillaged by the Mysore armies. In 1790, the British troops occupied the town, holding it till the peace two years later. Since then it has been steadily advancing in trade and population; and, with the exception of fanatical Moplá outbreaks, the public peace has been undisturbed.

Calimere Point (the *Calligicum* of Ptolemy).—A low promontory forming the most southerly point of the Coromandel Coast, Madras. Lat. 10° 17′ N., long. 79° 56′ E. (Horsburgh). The coast is covered with cocoa-nut trees, and the point ought not to be approached under 5½ or 6 fathoms. Two pagodas, called Point Calimere Pagodas, in lat. 10° 22′ N., long. 79° 58′ E. (Horsburgh), stand near each other, about a mile from the shore, and 6 or 7 miles to the north-north-east of the southern extremity of the point. From these pagodas, the direction of the coast is about north ½ west to Negapatam; distance, 20 miles;—all the land in this space is low and planted with cocoa-nut trees.

Calinga.—Ancient Division and *ghát* in Madras.—*See* KALINGA.

Calingapatam.—Town and port in Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* KALINGAPATAM.

Calventura (*Hnget-toung*, or 'Bird's feather').—A group of rocks off the coast of Arakan, in British Burma, forming two divisions bearing from each other north-west and south-east, and distant 5 or 6 miles. The north-west group (lat. 16° 55′ N., long. 94° 15′ 30″ E.) consists of seven irregular black rocks, one of which resembles an old church with a mutilated spire. The south-east division consists of two high rocky islands covered with vegetation, and connected by a reef with 5 to 7 fathoms of water upon it. About half-way between the islands there is a single rock, dry at low tide.

Camalapur.—Town in Bellary District, Madras.—*See* KAMALAPUR.

Cambay (*Khambhát*).—Feudatory State within the Political Agency of Káira, Province of Guzerat, Bombay; lying at the head of the gulf of the same name on the western shore of the Province of Guzerat, between 22° 9′ and 22° 41′ N. lat., and between 72° 20′ and 73° 5′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the British District of Káira; east by the lands of Borsad in Káira, and Pitlád belonging to Baroda; south by the Gulf of Cambay; and west by the Sábarmati river, separating it from Ahmed-

ábád. Estimated area (1875-76), 350 square miles; estimated population, 175,000. The boundary line of the State is very irregular, and some villages, belonging to the Gáekwár of Baroda and to the British Government, are entirely surrounded by Cambay territory. The country is flat and open, interspersed here and there, generally in the vicinity of the villages, with groves of fine trees, such as the mango, tamarind, banian or *bar*, *ním*, and *pípal*. Towards the north and west the soil is generally black, and well suited for the culture of wheat and cotton. To the east it is fit only for the growth of inferior sorts of grain, abundant crops of which are grown in favourable years. The cultivators are principally dependent on the monsoon rains for the means of irrigation, there being but few wells. The supply of drinking water is chiefly drawn from ponds or reservoirs, in which water is found throughout the greater part of the year. Near the city of Cambay skirting the shore of the gulf, and along the banks of the Máhi and Sábarmati rivers, stretch vast tracts of salt marsh land submerged at high spring tides. Nodular limestone or *kankar* mixed with sand and clay is found in large quantities from 10 to 15 feet below the surface of the soil. Though not of the best quality, the lime obtained from this stone is used by the people of the country for building and other purposes. There are no forests. Agricultural products consist of the ordinary varieties of millet and pulse, rice, wheat, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and a little opium. The cultivation of indigo has of late years greatly fallen off. The chief wild animals are the *nilgái* (Portax pictus), wild hog, and large herds of antelopes that feed on the short herbage on salt marsh lands near the sea-coast. During the cold weather every pond swarms with duck, teal, and snipe. The population consists of the various castes of Hindus found throughout Guzerat, including the wild tribes of Kolís and Wagris; Muhammadans, Jains, and Pársís. The languages used are Guzerathí and Hindustání. The chief articles of manufacture are indigo, salt, cloth, carpets, embroidery, and carved carnelians, which are imported from Ratanpur and other places in the Rájpípla State. The chocolate-coloured stone is brought from Káthiáwár; agates come from Kapadwanj and Sukaltirth on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, and from Rájkot in Káthiáwár. The total imports in 1874-75, consisting chiefly of molasses, timber, cocoa-nuts, and sugar were valued at £37,830; and the exports of tobacco, wrought carnelians, and wooden bracelets, at £77,816. There are no made roads within the limits of the Cambay territory. The mode of transit into the interior is by native carts, camels, or pack-bullocks. For communication by water, except during the monsoon months, boats of under 6 tons at ordinary tides, and under 50 tons at spring tides, ply between Cambay and Bombay, Surat, Broach, Gogo, and other ports. The head of the gulf forms neither a safe nor commo-

dious harbour, in consequence of the constant shifting of its bed from the force of the tides and the currents of the rivers Máhi and Sábarmati.

The name Cambay or Khambhát is said to be derived from *khámbha* or *stambhatirth*, the pool of Mahádeva under the form of the pillar god. Cambay is mentioned by Masudi (913); but the prosperity of the city is traditionally referred to the grant of its present site to a body of Bráhmans in 997. During the 11th and 12th centuries, Cambay appears as one of the chief ports of the Anhelwára kingdom; and at the conquest of that kingdom by the Musalmáns in 1297, it is said to have been one of the richest towns in India.

According to Lieutenant Robertson's *Historical Narrative of Cambay*, the Pársís of Guzerat sailed from Persia about the end of the 7th or beginning of the 8th century. A great number of their ships foundered in a storm, and only a few arrived at Sejam, about 70 miles south of Surat. They obtained permission to land after some difficulty, and on certain conditions; the chief of which were—that they should speak the Guzerathí language, and abstain from beef. The Pársís remained for many years in the vicinity of Sejam, pursuing a coasting trade; but eventually they spread over the neighbouring Districts, and became so numerous at Cambay that they outnumbered the original inhabitants and took possession of the town. After a short period, however, they were driven out with great slaughter by the Hindus, who held the territory until conquered by the Muhammadans in 1297 A.D.

In the 15th century, with the growing wealth and power of the Guzerat kingdom, Cambay regained its former prosperity, and at the beginning of the 16th century formed one of the chief centres of commerce in India. During the time of the Muhammadan Kings of Guzerat, Cambay was in a most flourishing condition. Large vessels unloaded their cargoes at Gogo, whence they were sent in small craft to Cambay. The passage between the two ports was so quick as to become proverbial. The founder of the present family of Cambay rulers was Momin Khán, the last but one of the Muhammadan governors of Guzerat. While he held the office of Governor, his son-in-law, Nizám Khán, had charge of Cambay. On Momin Khán's death in 1742, his son Muftukhár Khán basely compassed the death of Nizám Khán, and assumed the government of Cambay. The Marhattá leaders had already partitioned Guzerat; but Muftukhár Khán successfully resisted the claims of the Peshwá to tribute, until, by the treaty of Bassein, Cambay was ceded to the British Government. The principal item of this disputed tribute consisted of a nominal half-share in the sea and land customs, deducting cost of collection. The British Government found much difficulty in inducing the Nawáb to revise the complicated and onerous tariff of sea customs, which was highly injurious to trade; but, in 1856, an

arrangement was made by which the methods of collection are assimilated to those obtaining in civilised countries.

The present ruler is Nawáb Husain Yawur Khán Bahádúr, a Mughal Muhammadan of the Shiá sect, who was born about 1813. His position is that of a feudatory of the British Government. He has received a *sanad*, guaranteeing any succession to his State that may be legitimate according to Muhammadan law. He has first-class jurisdiction, having power to try for capital offences any persons except British subjects, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. Tribute is paid to the British Government of £2547 in cash, exclusive of collections on account of customs and excise. The military force consists of 173 cavalry and 1218 foot, for the most part undisciplined. The annual gross revenue, inclusive of transit duties on all goods, Indian and foreign, is estimated at £40,000. Public instruction is conducted by 2 public and 13 private indigenous schools, with 264 pupils in the former and 547 in the latter.

Being within the influence of the sea-breezes, the climate of Cambay is generally milder and more equable than that of the interior of Guzerat. The most prevalent diseases are fever and dysentery. The average yearly rainfall is returned at 29·30 inches.

Cambay (*Khambhát*).—Chief town in the State of the same name, Province of Guzerat, Bombay; situated at the head of the Gulf of Cambay, on the north of the estuary of the river Máhi. Lat. 22° 18′ 30″ N., long. 72° 40′ E. Distant 52 miles south of Ahmedábád, and 202 miles west of Mhau (Mhow). Pop. (1872), 33,709. The city was originally surrounded by a brick wall perforated for musketry, flanked with irregular towers without fosse or esplanade; but the works are now out of repair, and few of the guns mounted are serviceable. Only portions of the wall remain, enclosing a circumference of not more than 3 miles. The palace of the Nawáb is in good repair, but built in an inferior style of architecture. The Jamá Masjíd was erected in 1325 A.D., in the time of Muhammad Sháh; the pillars in the interior were taken from desecrated Jain temples, and, though arranged without much attention to architectural effect, give the mosque a picturesque appearance. Many ruins still attest the former wealth of Cambay. It is mentioned, under the name of Cambaet, as a place of great trade by Marco Polo (*circ.* 1293), and by his countryman and contemporary, Marino Sanudo, as one of the two great trading ports of India (Cambeth). Its commercial decline is attributable in great measure to the silting up of the gulf, and also to the 'bore' or rushing tide in the north of the gulf, and at the entrances of the Máhi and Sábarmati (Savarnamati) rivers. High spring-tides rise and fall as much as 33 feet, and the velocity of the current from 6 to 7 knots an hour. In ordinary springs the rise and fall is 25 feet, and the

current runs $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 knots. Great damage is thus frequently caused to shipping, the more so as the average depth of the channel is only from 4 to 6 fathoms; and the hazard is greatly increased by the constantly shifting shoals, caused by the frequent inundation of the rivers. Cambay is celebrated for the manufacture of agate, carnelian, and onyx ornaments. The carnelians come chiefly from mines in the vicinity of Ratanpur, in the Native State of Rájpípla, Rewá Kánta. The preparation of the stones was thus described in 1821 by Mr. J. Willoughby, Assistant to the Resident at Baroda: 'The Bhíls, who are the miners, commence their operations about September and leave off in April, when they commence burning the carnelians. The operation of burning is performed by digging a hole one yard square, in which are placed earthen pots filled with the carnelians, which to facilitate the process have for some time previous been exposed to the sun. The bottoms of the pots are taken out, and a layer of about 6 or 7 inches of cow or goat dung, strewed above and below them, is set on fire, which, when consumed, has rendered the stones ready for the Cambay merchants.' The three principal colours of the carnelians are red, white, and yellow, the first of which is considered the most valuable.

Cambay Gulf (or *Gulf of Cambay*).—The strip of sea which separates the Peninsula of Káthiáwár from the northern Bombay coast. The gulf was in ancient times a great resort of commerce, much frequented by Arab mariners. SURAT lies at the eastern point of its mouth; the Portuguese settlement of DIU at the western mouth, and CAMBAY TOWN at its northern extremity. The gulf receives the two great rivers, the Tápti and Narbadá (Nerbudda), on its eastern side; the Máhi and Sábarmati (Savarnamati) on the north, and several small rivers from Káthiáwár on the west. Owing to the causes mentioned under Cambay Town, the gulf is silting up and is now resorted to only by small craft. The once famous harbours (SURAT and BROACH, which see separately) around its coast have ceased to be used by foreign commerce.

Camel's Hump.—Mountain peak in the Calicut *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras. Height, 7677 feet above the sea. Situated 26 miles north-east of Calicut, in lat. 11° 26′ N., and long. 76° 10′ E.

Campbellpur.—Small cantonment in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab. Lat. 33° 47′ N., long. 72° 23′ E. Occupied by a regiment of European cavalry. Known to the natives by the name of Hamalpur, derived from the tomb of Hamal Sháh, a Sayyid, which stands in the village, and is an object of religious veneration among the people of the neighbourhood.

Canara, North.—District of Bombay.—*See* KANARA.

Canara, South.—District of Madras.—*See* KANARA.

Candahar.—Town in Afghánistán.—*See* KANDAHAR.

Cannanore (*Kannúr*).—Municipal town and port in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 51′ 12″ N., long. 75° 24′ 44″ E.; pop. (1871), 10,265; houses, 1984; municipal income in 1876-77, £1883; incidence of taxation, about 10d. per head. Being the headquarters of the Cherakal *táluk*, it contains the usual subordinate public offices, magisterial and judicial, jail, dispensary, schools, etc.; and it has also a custom house, salt dépôt, and marine establishment. The value of the sea-going trade during 1875-76 was—imports, £220,244; exports, £115,248; about 6 per cent. of the whole being dutiable, and yielding, with port dues, £263. But the chief importance of Cannanore is as a military cantonment. It is the headquarters of the Malabar and Kanara force, being the station of a general of division, with his staff, and is garrisoned by 1 European and 2 native regiments of infantry, with a battery of artillery—total strength, 2175. The cantonment is spacious, and intersected by good roads, with two parade grounds, ordnance dépôt, brigade and commissariat offices, etc. It lies to the north-west of the fort, a triangular building covering a rocky point which juts out into the sea. Across the bay, lies the Moplá quarter of Cannanore, where the descendants of the old Cannanore Sultáns reside, the town being otherwise remarkable for the number of its mosques, two of which are of special note. Within its limits stands the fishing village of Thái, with a Roman Catholic chapel, once a Portuguese factory. The cantonment was made a municipality in 1867, and in 1872 the town proper was brought under the Towns Improvement Act. Anglican, German, and Roman Catholic missions are established here, with schools attached. The average annual rainfall is 97 inches. The death-rate for 1875-76 was 41 per thousand.

Cannanore was, according to the legend of the partition of his dominions by Cheruman Perumal, included in the kingdom of the KALAHASTI (Calastri), or Cherakal Rájás, to whom it belonged till the invasion of Malabar by Haidar Alí. In 1498, the Portuguese Cabral landed here, and, being well received, planted a colony. Seven years later Vasco da Gama erected a factory. In 1656, the Dutch effected a settlement, for the protection of which they built the present fort, which they occupied till 1766, when it fell into the hands of the Mysore troops. In 1784, Cannanore was captured by the British, and the reigning Princess became tributary to the East India Company. Seven years later, it was again taken; and since that date has remained, in British hands, the chief military station on the Malabar coast under the Madras Presidency.

Canning, Port.—River port on the Matlá river, Bengal.—*See* PORT CANNING.

Caragola.—Town and river *ghát* in Purniah District, Bengal.—*See* KARAGOLA.

Cardamom Hills.—Range of hills in Travancore State, Madras,

lying between 9° 27′ and 10° 4′ N. lat., and between 76° 52′ and 77° 17′ E. long. Average height, from 2000 to 4000 feet above the sea. The hills are divided roughly into the 'Margari Alum' and 'Kunni Alum' groups, both very sparsely populated, and unhealthy. The Kunni Alum, though at a lower average elevation, lies within the influence of the sea-breeze, and enjoys, therefore, a rather better climate than the Margari Alum. The cardamoms collected on these hills amount annually to about 60 tons, valued at £30,000; they thrive best at an elevation of 3000 feet. With the exception of a few small coffee estates on the southern slopes, the hills possess no other economic value.

Carnatic.—Geographical Division of Madras.—*See* KARNATIC.

Cashmere.—Native State, Punjab.—*See* KASHMIR.

Cassergode (*Kásaragodu;* 'Kangercote' of the *Tohfat-al-Majáhidín*).—Town in South Kanara District, Madras; situated on the Chandragiri river, in lat. 12° 29′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 2′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 6416; number of houses, 1178. The southernmost post of the ancient Tuluva kingdom, with an ancient fort of the Ikkeri kings.

Cauvery (*Káveri;* the Χάβηρος of the Greek geographer Ptolemy).—A great river of Southern India, famous alike for its traditional sanctity, its picturesque scenery, and its utility for irrigation. Rising in Coorg, high up amid the Western Gháts, in 12° 25′ N. lat. and 75° 34′ E. long., it flows with a generally south-east direction across the plateau of Mysore, and finally pours itself into the Bay of Bengal through two principal mouths in the Madras District of Tanjore; total length, about 475 miles; estimated area of drainage basin, 28,000 square miles. It is known to devout Hindus as Dakshini Ganga, or the Ganges of the South, and the whole of its course is holy ground. According to the legend preserved in the *Agneya* and *Skánda Puránas*, there was once born upon earth a girl named Vishnumáyá or Lopámudrá, the daughter of Brahma; but her divine father permitted her to be regarded as the child of a mortal, called Kávera-muni. In order to obtain beatitude for her adoptive father, she resolved to become a river whose waters should purify from all sin. Hence it is that even the holy Ganga resorts underground once in the year to the source of the Cauvery, to purge herself from the pollution contracted from the crowd of sinners who have bathed in her waters. At Tála Káveri where the river rises, and at Bhágamandala where it receives its first tributary, stand ancient temples annually frequented by crowds of pilgrims in the month of Tulámása (October–November). The course of the Cauvery in Coorg is very tortuous. Its bed is generally rocky; its banks are high and covered with luxuriant vegetation. In the dry season it is fordable almost anywhere, but during the rains it swells into a torrent 20 or 30 feet deep. In this portion of its course it is joined by many tributaries—the Kakabe, Kadanur, Kumma-hole, Muttáremutta, Chikka-hole, and

Suvarnati. Near the frontier, at the station of Frazerpet, it is spanned by a magnificent stone bridge, 516 feet in length. On entering Mysore the Cauvery passes through a narrow gorge, but presently widens to an average breadth of from 300 to 400 yards. Its bed continues rocky, so as to forbid all navigation; but its banks are here bordered with a rich strip of wet cultivation. In its course through Mysore, the channel is interrupted by no less than twelve anicuts or dams for the purpose of irrigation. From the most important of these, known as the Madadkatte, an artificial channel is led off 72 miles in length, which irrigates an area of 10,000 acres with a revenue of £7000, and ultimately brings a water-supply into the town of Mysore. In this portion of its course it forms the two islands of SERINGAPATAM and SIVASAMUDRAM, which vie in sanctity with the island of SRIRANGAM lower down in Trichinopoly District. Enclosing the island of Sivasamudram are the celebrated falls of the Cauvery, which are unrivalled for romantic beauty. The river here branches into two channels, each of which makes a descent of about 200 miles in a succession of rapids and broken cascades. The scene has been rendered accessible to visitors by the private munificence of a native of Mysore, who has constructed two stone bridges of rude but solid workmanship to connect the island with either bank. More than one tragic story of former days has gathered round this picturesque spot. The Mysore tributaries of the Cauvery are the Hemavati, Lakshmantirtha, Lokapávani, Kabbani, and Suvarnavati. After entering the territory of Madras, it forms the boundary between the two Districts of Coimbatore and Salem for a considerable distance, until it strikes into Trichinopoly District. Sweeping past the historic rock of Trichinopoly, it breaks at the island of Srírangam into two channels, which enclose between them the delta of Tanjore, the garden of Southern India. The more northerly of these channels is called the COLEROON (Kolidam); that which continues the course of the river towards the east preserves the name of the Cauvery. On the seaward face of the delta are the open roadsteads of Negapatam and French Kárikal. The only navigation on any portion of its course is carried on in boats of basket-work. In Madras the chief tributaries are the Bhaváni, Noyel, and Amravati. At Erode the river is crossed by the main line of the Madras Railway, by means of an iron-girder bridge, 1536 feet long with 72 spans, on piers sunk into the solid rock. The total cost of this structure was £40,000.

Though the water of the Cauvery is utilised for agriculture in Mysore and also in Coimbatore District, it is in the delta that its real value for irrigation becomes conspicuous. At Srírangam, just above the point of bifurcation, the flood discharge is estimated at 472,000 feet per second. The problem of utilising this storehouse of agricultural wealth was first grappled with by a prehistoric Hindu king, who constructed a massive

dam of unhewn stone, 1080 feet long and from 40 to 60 feet broad, across the stream of the Cauvery proper. This dam, which is supposed to date back to the 4th century A.D., is still in excellent repair, and has supplied a typical model to our own engineers. When the British first came into possession of Tanjore District, in 1801, it was found that the great volume of the water supply was then passing unused down the Coleroon, which is mainly a drainage channel; while the Cauvery proper was gradually silting up, and the irrigating channels that take off from it were becoming dry. The object of the engineering works that have been since constructed is to redress this unequal tendency, and to compel either channel to carry the maximum of water that can be put to good use. The chief modern work is the dam or anicut across the Coleroon, constructed by Sir Arthur Cotton between 1836 and 1838. This dam is 2250 feet long, broken by islands into three sections. The body is of brick, capped with cut stone. Its thickness is 6 feet, supported in the rear by an apron of masonry, 21 feet broad. By means of an elaborate system of self-acting sluices, which have been constructed in subsequent years, the discharge of the two rivers has now been so accurately regulated that neither is being choked with silt, while the surplus water supply of both is made available for irrigation through a countless number of distributaries. The area already irrigated from this source in the three Districts of Tanjore, Trichinopoly, and South Arcot is about 835,000 acres, yielding a revenue of £353,000.

Cawnpore (correctly, *Kánhpur*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 56′ 15″ and 26° 57′ N. lat., and between 79° 34′ 45″ and 80° 38′ E. long.; area, 2336 square miles; population in 1872, 1,156,055 souls. Cawnpore is the westernmost District of the Allahábád Division; bounded on the north-east by the Ganges, on the west by Farrukhábád and Etáwah, on the south-west by the Jumna (Jamuná), and on the east by Fatehpur. The administrative headquarters are at CAWNPORE CITY.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Cawnpore forms part of the Doáb, or great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna; and it does not materially differ in its general features from other portions of that monotonous tract. It consists for the most part of a level plateau, only varied by the courses of the minor streams whose waters swell the great boundary rivers, and by the steep ravines which channel the friable soil of the plain. The country has a slight general slope toward the south-west, and all the river channels trend in that direction. It is divided into four main sections by the streams which collect and carry away the surface drainage. The Isan cuts off a small angle to the north, joining the Ganges shortly after its entry within the limits of Cawnpore; next come the Pándu and the Rind, which traverse the midland portion of the District from end to end; while to the extreme

south, the Sengur falls into the Jumna, and encloses between itself and the main stream a triangular wedge of land. The banks of the two last-named rivers are marked by extensive ravines of great depth, which ramify in every direction from the central gorge. Their soil is almost entirely uncultivable, and they have a wild and desolate appearance, contrasting strongly with the rich and peaceful aspect of the cultivated country above. The clay of the upland plain is naturally dry and thirsty, but it has been converted into a prosperous agricultural region by the waters of the Ganges Canal. No fewer than four branches of that great engineering work enter the District of Cawnpore at different points; while minor distributaries run from them in every direction over the surrounding fields. The plain is now one of the most flourishing portions of the Doáb, and only an occasional strip of *usár*, whitened by the efflorescence known as *reh*, breaks the general prospect of cultivated fields. No lake of any size exists in the District, but a few small patches of water are formed by the overflow of the canal. After the rains, the lower levels are occupied by shallow ponds, particularly where irrigation trenches connected with the Ganges Canal intersect the natural lines of drainage, thus producing a temporary dam; but the pools which collect under these circumstances are soon drained dry by the cultivators to water their fields. Groves of tamarind and *mahuá* not uncommonly overshadow the village temples or the more ambitious mosques. The fauna of the District includes leopards, wolves, *nílgái*, antelope, deer, foxes, and jackals; partridges, peafowl, and sand-grouse abound, while waterfowl are common in the low-lying marshy flats.

History.—The District of Cawnpore is an administrative creation of British rule, not dating further back than the latter half of the last century. Under the Muhammadan system its various *parganás* were distributed between the *Subahs* of Allahábád and Agra, and its early history, so far as known, is identical with that of the surrounding Districts. The Doáb was conquered by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghorí in 1194 A.D.; and it remained a fief of the various dynasties at Delhi until the establishment of the Mughal power in the 16th century. Bábar subdued the country in 1529; and it became at a somewhat later date the chief scene of the protracted struggle between his son Humáyún and the Pathán chief, Sher Sháh. One or two mosques and other public buildings in the smaller towns still bear witness to the rule of Aurangzeb; but comparatively few traces of the family of Bábar now remain scattered through the District, as it contained hardly any towns of importance during the palmy epoch of the Mughals. On the decline of the Delhi Empire, the country about Cawnpore, with the remainder of the Doáb, was overrun by the Marhattás in 1736. It continued in their hands till 1747, when it was recovered by Safdar Jang, the Nawáb

Wazír of Oudh. The city of Cawnpore was not founded until after the victories of Buxar and Kora in 1764-65, when the Nawáb Shujá-ud-daulá agreed to pay a tribute of 50 *lákhs* of rupees, and to permit the establishment of two cantonments for British troops within his dominions, one at Cawnpore and the other at Fatehgarh. The troops were at first stationed at Bilgrám, but were removed to Cawnpore in 1778. A city soon sprang up around the military lines, adorned with many handsome mosques and other buildings, but bearing its recent origin somewhat obtrusively upon its face. By the treaty of 1801, the Nawáb Wazír ceded to the British the whole lower Doáb, together with other territory, in commutation of the stipulated tribute, which experience had shown to be in a perpetual condition of arrears. A District of Cawnpore was immediately organized, with much more extensive boundaries than those which at present limit it, and embracing certain *parganás* now transferred, by the necessity for more active and energetic administration, to Etáwah, Farrukhábád, and Fatehpur. Our early officials found the country suffering heavily from the fiscal exactions of its native rulers; and the first step needful for the re-establishment of agricultural prosperity was a reduction of the land revenue. A series of reduced settlements were effected at various dates in the early part of the present century, and the District began rapidly to revive under the firm and peaceful rule of its new masters. No special event in the annals of Cawnpore calls for notice before the unhappy incidents of the Mutiny of 1857. The part which the city bore in that great struggle is a matter of imperial rather than of local history. Though we never lost possession of the Cawnpore District for more than a few days during the whole rebellion, yet we had to maintain a continuous contest with the insurgents from May to December 1857. Bájí Ráo, the last of the Peshwás, had taken up his residence, in exile, at the picturesque little town of Bithúr on the Ganges, in this District. On the Peshwá's death his adopted son, Dundhu Panth, was not permitted to assume the titles of his father. As 'Náná Sahib' his name has since become familiar upon every lip. Shortly after the outbreak at Meerut, this disaffected prince was placed in charge of the treasury at Cawnpore. Early in June it was thought desirable to entrench the barracks, and all Europeans were brought within the entrenchment. On the 6th of June, the 2nd Cavalry and 1st Native Infantry rose in revolt, seized the treasury, broke open the jail, and burnt the public offices. They then marched out one stage on the road to Delhi, and were joined by the 53rd and 54th regiments. The Náná immediately went out to their camp, and persuaded them to return. He next attacked the entrenched Europeans with a brisk cannonade, kept up for three weeks, until the rebel ammunition was exhausted. By the 26th of June, the position of the besieged became untenable, and

they capitulated on a sworn promise of protection. The Náná agreed to send them to Allahábád, and next day they marched out to the *ghát*, and got into the boats; but before they could push off, they were fired on from all sides. Two boats only escaped, one of which was at once swamped by a round shot; the other went down the river under fire from both banks, and most of the Europeans were killed. A few escaped for a while to SHIURAJPUR in Fatehpur, where some were captured, and the remainder massacred, except four. The soldiers in the boats were mostly shot upon the spot; the women and children were carried off to the Saváda Kothi, where they were all cut to pieces, by the Náná's orders, at the first sound of Havelock's guns outside Cawnpore. About 200 bodies were taken out of the well into which they were thrown, where the well-known Memorial now stands. Havelock fought the battles of Aung and the Pándú Nadi on the 15th of July, and next day took Cawnpore by storm. The 17th and 18th were devoted to the recovery of the city, and the 19th to the destruction of Bithúr and the Náná's palaces. Two or three unsuccessful attempts to cross into Oudh were hazarded, but no actual advance was made until the arrival of reinforcements under General Outram towards the end of August. Lord Clyde's column passed through to the relief of LUCKNOW on the 19th of October, and Colonel Greathed followed a week later. In November, the Gwalior mutineers crossed the Jumna, and, being joined by a large force of Oudh rebels, attacked Cawnpore on the 27th, and obtained possession of the city, which they held till Lord Clyde marched in the next evening. On the 6th of December, Lord Clyde routed them with great loss, and took all their guns. General Walpole then led a column through the country towns, restoring order in Akbarpur, Rasúlábád, and Derápur. The District was not completely pacified till after the fall of Kálpi in May 1858; but that event rendered its reorganization easy, and when Firoz Sháh fled through it in December 1858, his passage caused no disturbance.

Population.—Cawnpore is one of the Districts where agriculture and population have almost reached their utmost limit, and, in consequence, a slight falling off in the number of inhabitants has taken place of late years. The decrease is mainly attributable to emigration toward other parts of the country, where employment is more easily obtained. In 1853, the total population was returned at 1,174,556 persons. In 1865, it had risen to 1,192,836, showing an increase of 18,208, or 1·5 per cent. In 1872, the number was ascertained to be 1,156,055 persons, being a falling off of 36,781, or 3·1 per cent. The area rose somewhat between 1853 and 1865, and fell again between the latter year and 1872; but in neither case was the difference sufficiently great to account for the variation in the number of inhabitants. The Census of 1872, which was taken upon an area of 2336

square miles, disclosed a total population of 1,156,055 persons, distributed among 1985 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 272,232 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 495; villages per square mile, ·8; houses per square mile, 116; persons per village, 582; persons per house, 4·2. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 619,118; females, 536,321; proportion of males, 53·6 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 182,793; females, 158,467; total, 341,260, or 29·51 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Cawnpore is more essentially Hindu than the neighbouring Districts. In 1872, the Census returned 1,065,786 persons, or 92·2 per cent. of the total, as adherents of the ancient faith; while only 89,215, or 7·8 per cent., were set down as believers in the creed of Islám. Among the Hindu population, the Bráhmans rank first, in numbers as in caste, with a total of 183,304 persons. The Rájputs were returned at 92,523 persons. These two castes form the chief landholding bodies in the District. The Banias had 37,451 representatives, engaged, as usual, in commercial pursuits. Of the inferior castes, the Chamárs (122,932) were the most numerous; most of whom are labourers in the poorest condition. Next come the Ahírs (113,053), Kurmís (58,359), and Káyasths (15,169). Amongst Musalmán tribes, the Shaikhs are the most important, numbering in all 64,797 souls. The village organisation is of the same general type which is common throughout the Lower Doáb. First comes the body of landowners, generally Thákurs or Bráhmans; below them rank the old hereditary cultivators, who possess rights of occupancy, and are often descendants or clansmen of former landowners; third in social importance are the Banias, shopkeepers, and petty bankers; the fourth stratum consists of tenants-at-will, who till the land for a bare subsistence; while the lowest class of all is composed of the artisans and labourers, indispensable to the native system, such as the barber, the potter, the washerman, the tanner, the scavenger, and the water-carrier. There were only two towns in 1872 with a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, CAWNPORE (122,770) and BILHAUR (5954). The greater part of the inhabitants are scattered over the face of the country in small villages. The total agricultural population was returned at 564,010, or 48·8 per cent. of the whole.

Agriculture.—The system of tillage in Cawnpore is that common to the whole Doáb. There are two main agricultural seasons, the *kharíf*, or autumn harvest, and the *rabí*, or spring harvest. The *kharíf* crops are sown after the first rain in June, and include rice, cotton, *bájra*, *joár*, *moth*, and other food-stuffs. Most of these staples are reaped in October, but the early rice is harvested in September, while cotton is not ready for picking until February. The *rabí* crops are sown in

October or November, and reaped in March or April; they consist of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both harvests, and land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. Spring and autumn crops are not often taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of early rice is reaped in September, and a second crop of some other kind is put into the ground in the following month. The staple product of the District is wheat, but the cultivation of cotton has received a great impetus since the American war. Among the minor crops are to be found oil-seeds, opium, spices, tobacco, and potatoes. Sugar-cane is extensively grown on the better soils, and indigo is cultivated for the sake of the seed, which is exported in large quantities to Behar. The various branches of the Ganges Canal afford abundant opportunities for irrigation, and the shallow ponds which collect after the rains are used by the villagers for the same object. In *parganás* Rasúlábád and Shiurájpur a succession of swampy bottoms, the former bed of a considerable stream, runs in an irregular line across the country for about 25 miles; the water left in them after the rainy season is employed to irrigate the spring crops, while rice is grown in their moist basins after the surface has been thus partially drained. The condition of the agricultural classes in Cawnpore is decidedly inferior to that prevalent throughout the Benares Division. There is reason to fear that the majority are usually under-fed. No statistics are available to show the rates of rent or the conditions of occupancy. In 1877, the rates of wages were as follows: Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. Women receive about one-fifth less than men, while children are paid from one-half to one-third of the wages of adults. The following were the average prices of food-stuffs in 1876:—Wheat, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; rice, 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt.; *joár*, 39 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 11d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Cawnpore suffers, like other Districts of the Doáb, from drought and its natural consequence, famine. It is not so severely visited in this respect as the country farther to the west; but neither, on the other hand, does it share the comparative immunity of the region immediately eastward. It was the most westerly of all the Districts which experienced the terrible famine of 1770. In 1783-84, both autumn and spring crops failed, and the people and cattle died by thousands. The distress was worst beyond the Jumna, and the starving hordes of Bundelkhand crossed the river into Cawnpore only to die on their arrival. The next great drought was that of 1803-4, when most of the *kharíf* crops and the whole *rabí* harvest perished for want of rain. The famine of 1837 visited Cawnpore with frightful severity. During July, August, and September no rain fell,

and not a blade of vegetation was produced; the cattle died in herds, and whole villages were depopulated. The *parganás* along the Ganges suffered most; and though revenue was remitted, and relief works were started, immense tracts of arable land fell out of cultivation, as neither men nor cattle were left to till them. A little of the autumn crops escaped along the Jumna, and a few patches were cultivated for the spring harvest by means of irrigation. In 1860-61, the distress was worst in the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand, but did not reach so far east as Cawnpore in its fullest intensity. The scarcity was quite sufficient, however, to put pressure on the lower classes, and crimes against property became much more frequent than usual. In 1868-69 and 1873-74, Cawnpore escaped almost unhurt; and it is hoped that the existing means of communication, combined with the splendid opportunities for irrigation afforded by the Ganges Canal, will suffice to protect it in future from the worst extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The District as a whole has a considerable agricultural trade in raw materials, especially grain, cotton, and indigo-seed. In the city of Cawnpore, saddlery, boots, and other leathern articles are manufactured in large quantities. The Elgin and Mayo Cotton Mills afford employment to a great number of hands, and supply the native weavers with yarn for their looms. Leather goods, textile fabrics, and tents are largely exported. For many years past, Cawnpore showed a tendency to increase its business, somewhat to the detriment of other local markets, such as Farrukhábád. It has long been the principal entrepôt for commerce arriving from Oudh, Rohilkhand, the remoter Doáb villages, and Bundelkhand. Quite lately, however, symptoms of a reactionary tendency have been observed, owing doubtless to the extension of the railway system, which favours the development of local centres and the general diffusion of commerce. The bankers and large traders of Cawnpore are chiefly Banias and Kshattriyas. They have correspondents at Calcutta, Patna, Benares, Mírzápur, Allahábád, Agra, and Háthras; and they act in turn as agents for firms at those places. The means of communication are ample. The East Indian Railway passes through the whole length of the District, with five stations within its boundaries. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway sends its Cawnpore branch across the river Ganges by a girder bridge, and has a station at the town. The Grand Trunk Road also traverses the District, parallel to the Ganges, with a length of 64 miles; it conveys most of the local heavy traffic. There are other metalled roads to Kálpi and to Hamírpur (crossing the Jumna by pontoon bridges); while unmetalled roads, raised and bridged throughout, connect all the minor local centres. A great deal of country produce, such as grain, indigo-seed, wood, and hides, is still conveyed by the water-way of the Ganges and the Jumna.

Administration.—The ordinary staff of the District consists of a Collector-Magistrate, two Joint Magistrates, an Assistant, and two Deputies. In 1876, the whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District amounted to £303,361, or 5s. 6d. per head of the population. In the previous year, the local funds were returned at £36,229, and the local expenditure at £23,369. In 1875 the strength of the regular police force was 986 officers and men maintained at a cost of £11,345. These figures show one policeman to every 2·39 square miles and every 1171 of the population; with an expenditure at the rate of £4, 14s. per square mile, and 2⅜d. per inhabitant. The regular police was supplemented by a body of 2985 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen, or one to every 350 of the population. The District jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 371 prisoners, of whom 343 were males and 28 females. The average cost per prisoner was £3, 7s. 3d., and the average earnings of each inmate amounted to £1, 4s. There are 29 imperial and 4 local post offices in the District. The Government has a telegraph office at Cawnpore, and the East Indian Railway has offices at all its stations. Education was carried on in 1875 by means of 377 schools, with a roll-call of 11,060 scholars; being an average of 6·19 square miles for each school, and a percentage of ·95 scholars upon the total population; 25 of these schools are for female education. The total cost of the educational establishment in 1876 amounted to £7295; of which, £2781 was paid from provincial revenue, and £4514 from local funds. For fiscal purposes Cawnpore is subdivided into 9 *tahsíls* and 10 *parganás*. The District contains only one municipality—Cawnpore city. In 1875-76, its municipal income amounted to £11,193, and its gross expenditure to £10,977; the incidence of municipal taxation being at the rate of 1s. 5⅝d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Cawnpore is like that of the other Doáb Districts. From the middle of April to the 1st of July it is excessively hot and dry, and westerly winds prevail. After this, the monsoon is ushered in by damp east winds. The rainy season lasts till the end of September or beginning of October; the cold weather commences about the 1st of November. The District is on the whole well drained, and is therefore fairly healthy during the rains. The average annual rainfall for the 11 years ending 1871 was 32·0 inches. During this period, the maximum was 48·7 inches in 1867, and the minimum was 11·0 inches in 1860. The total number of deaths reported in 1875 was 26,790, or 23·10 per thousand of the population; the average death-rate per thousand during the previous six years was 25·55. There are 6 dispensaries in the District—at Cawnpore, Nawábganj, Generalganj, Bhognipur, Ghátampur, and Derápur; the first three being in the city and station. During the year 1875, 24,942

persons were treated in these institutions, of whom 612 were in-door patients and 24,330 out-door. The total receipts amounted to £902, and the expenditure on the establishment to £403.

Cawnpore City.—Administrative headquarters of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the right bank of the river Ganges, 130 miles above its junction with the Jumna at Allahábád. Lat. 26° 28′ 15″ N., and long. 80° 23′ 45″ E. Distant from Calcutta 628 miles north-west, from Delhi 266 miles south-east. Cawnpore is the fourth city in size and importance of the North-Western Provinces; it covers an area of 6079 acres, contains 33,391 houses, and has a population, according to the Census of 1872, of 122,770 souls. Elevation above sea level, about 500 feet.

Situation and Appearance.—The cantonments and civil station of Cawnpore lie along the right bank of the Ganges, while the native city stretches inland toward the south-west, and also fills up the space between the military and civil portions of the European quarter. Starting from the east, on the Allahábád road, the race-course first meets the eye of the approaching visitor. The Native Cavalry Lines succeed to the westward, after which comes the brigade parade ground. North-east of the latter, lie the European Infantry barracks; while the intervening ground, between these cantonments and the river bank, is occupied by the Memorial Church, the club, the artillery lines, and the various military offices. The city covers the plain north of the parade ground; and the Ganges shore is here lined by the Memorial Gardens, enclosing the famous well. Still farther to the west stands the civil station, with the Bank of Bengal, Christ Church, the theatre, and other European buildings. Old Cawnpore lies three miles farther along the river side, separated from the present city by fields and gardens. The modern origin of Cawnpore deprives it of architectural attractions; and it cannot boast of such ancient palaces or handsome mansions as adorn Agra, Benares, and other historic capitals. The few buildings with any pretensions to beauty or elegance have been erected during the last fifty years by bankers, merchants, or pleaders; and the general aspect of the streets discloses little beyond mud huts and plain brick edifices.

History.—Cawnpore possesses no historical interest in early times, being a purely modern creation to meet the military and administrative needs of the British Government. The city first arose after the defeats of Shujá-ud-daulá, Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, at Buxar, in October 1764, and at Kora, in May 1765. The Nawáb then concluded a treaty with the British, granting them the right of stationing troops at two places in his dominions, Cawnpore and Fatehgarh. One of the detachments, however, was at first quartered at Bilgrám; and it was not till 1778 that the present site became the advanced frontier outpost in this por-

tion of the newly-acquired territory. From the location of a large body of troops in Cawnpore, the town sprang rapidly into importance as a trading mart, and has now developed into a commercial city of the first rank. In 1801, the surrounding country came finally into our possession, by cession from the Nawáb Wazír, and the headquarters of a District were fixed in the city. No events of historical note occurred between the annexation and the Mutiny of 1857; but in that year Cawnpore was rendered memorable by the leading part which it played in the operations of the mutineers. The struggle with the rebels lasted from May to December; but the station itself was never lost for more than a few days. News of the outbreak at Meerut reached Cawnpore on the 14th of May. Eleven days later, the Náná Dundhu Panth of BITHUR, adopted son of the last Peshwá, Bájí Ráo, was placed in charge of the treasury; and, on the 30th of May, the entrenchment of the European barracks began. On the 6th of June, the native troops mutinied, sacked the treasury, broke open the jail, and burnt the public offices. Next day, the Náná opened fire on the entrenchments, which had no further fortification than a mud parapet, 5 feet in height. After three weeks' cannonade, the position became untenable, and the garrison capitulated under a promise of personal security and safe conduct to Allahábád. On the 27th, they embarked in boats on the Ganges for Allahábád, at the Sátti Chaura *ghát*, a landing-place near the spot where the Memorial Gardens now stand. Before they could put off, they were treacherously fired upon from the bank, and all destroyed or captured, except one boat load, which escaped for the time into Fatehpur District. The prisoners, including women and children, were crowded into a house at Cawnpore, and finally massacred by the Náná's orders, in the Saváda Kothi, near the East Indian Railway. On the 16th of July, Havelock stormed the city, and the Náná fled precipitately to Bithúr. Four days later, General Neill arrived with a reinforcement of 400 Europeans. Havelock thrice advanced unsuccessfully into Oudh, and retreated at last to Cawnpore, on the 10th of August. Shortly after, General Outram reached the city, and marched on to the relief of Lucknow, which was successfully accomplished on the 25th. Lord Clyde's and Col. Greathed's columns passed through on different occasions in October; and on the 26th of November, the Gwalior mutineers approached Cawnpore. General Windham attacked and defeated the rebel force; but, being strengthened by Oudh insurgents, they again assaulted the city, which they wrested from us on the 27th. They held it, however, only for a single night, as Lord Clyde's force marched in on the evening of the 28th, drove out the mutineers, and utterly defeated them next day, outside the city, with the loss of all their guns. After the re-organization of the District, the site of the massacre was laid out as Memorial Gardens, and an ornamental

building was placed over the well into which the bodies were flung. The surrounding wall is pierced with rows of lancet windows or openings, having trefoiled mullions; and handsome bronze doors close the entrance. Within stands a marble figure of an angel by Baron Marochetti. The well forms the chief object of interest to visitors in a city otherwise devoid of architectural interest. A Memorial Church also occupies the site of General Wheeler's intrenchments in the cantonment. The style is Romanesque, and the material consists of massive red brick, relieved by buttresses and copings of buff freestone.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the total population of Cawnpore city and station at 122,770 souls; comprising 90,582 Hindus, 31,894 Muhammadans, and 294 Christians or 'others.' Of these, 67,663 were males and 55,107 females.

Communications, Trade, etc.—The Ganges forms the natural waterway for the traffic of Cawnpore, and still carries a large portion of the heavy trade. The Ganges canal, which passes just south of the city, is also navigable, and affords means of communication for a considerable number of country boats. The East Indian Railway from Allahábád to Delhi has a station about a mile west of the city; and the Lucknow branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand line, after crossing the Ganges by a girder bridge, passes between the native quarter and the cantonments, and joins the East Indian Railway a little west of the Cawnpore station. The Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Delhi also runs through the city and military lines; while other roads branch off southward to Kálpi and Hamírpur, and northward over the railway bridge, to Unao and Lucknow. The chief trade of Cawnpore consists in the manufacture of leather goods, a branch of industry which is rapidly developing from year to year. Two large cotton mills give employment to a considerable number of operatives, who manufacture yarn, cloth, and tents, and supply the native weavers with material for their craft. These two items of leather and cotton goods make up the principal export trade of Cawnpore; but the city also forms a great grain mart, where agricultural produce from Bundelkhand, Oudh, and the middle Doáb is collected for despatch by rail. The commerce of Cawnpore has steadily increased for many years past, somewhat to the detriment of Fatehgarh, Mírzápur, and other local trading centres; but the development of the railway system in Upper India is already acting so as to decentralize the trade, by creating intermediate marts at the principal stations. The internal affairs of the town are managed by a municipal committee of 18 members, of whom 6 are official and 12 elective. The total municipal income in 1875-76 amounted to £11,193; from taxes, £7242, or 1s. $5\frac{5}{8}$d. per head of population (98,476) within the limits of the municipality.

Ceded Districts.—A term applied to the territory in the Deccan ceded to the British in 1800 after the downfall of Tipú, for the maintenance of the Nizám's Subsidiary Force.—*See* HYDERABAD STATE.

Ceded and Conquered Provinces.—A term formerly applied to the 'Provinces ceded by the Nawáb Vizier' of Oudh in 1801, including Allahábád, Azimgarh, Farrukhábád, Etáwah, Gorakpur, etc., with a total revenue of Sicca rupees 13,523,474 (see Aitchison's *Treaties*, vol. ii. pp. 100–103, ed. 1876). They formed the nucleus of the North-Western Provinces, and still constitute the eastern portion of that Lieutenant-Governorship.

Central India Agency.—The collective name given to the eight groups of Native States known as the INDORE, GWALIOR, BHOPAL, BUNDELKHAND, BAGHELKHAND, BHIL, WESTERN MALWA, and GUNA 'Agencies,'—each of which see separately. The Central India Agency is under the direct political supervision of the Government of India.

Central Provinces.—The name given to the territory under the administration of a Chief Commissioner, lying between 17° 50′ and 24° 27′ N. lat., and between 76° and 85° 15′ E. long., nearly coincident with the old geographical division of Gondwána. Population in 1872, 9,251,229; area, 112,912 square miles.

Physical Aspects.—The tract falls naturally into several distinct areas, marked out by their physical features, and in a great measure by geological structure. To the north extends the Vindhyán tableland (including the Districts of Ságar (Saugor) and Damoh), which sheds its waters northwards into the valley of the Ganges. Throughout this region, the surface is formed by the deposits styled *Vindhyán*, except in the large tracts where the Vindhyán strata are concealed by the overflowing volcanic rocks of the great Deccan trap area. South of Ságar (Saugor) and Damoh, in the valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), come Mandla (which includes the upper course of the river before it debouches into the plains), JABALPUR (Jubbulpore), NARSINHPUR, HOSHANGABAD, and a part of NIMAR, the rest of which lies in the valley of the Tápti. This area chiefly consists of alluvial and tertiary deposits, with a narrow belt of older rocks along the southern side of the valley. Continuing southwards, the next cluster of Districts comprises BETUL, CHHINDWARA, SEONI, and BALAGHAT, which occupy the extensive highlands constituting the Sátpura tableland, in great part formed of the Deccan traps resting upon crystalline rocks, or upon sandstone and other rocks of later date. These Districts at their central plateaux attain a height of about 2000 feet. Still farther to the south extends the great Nágpur plain, formed by the valleys of the Wardha and Wáinganga, which comprises the Districts of NAGPUR, WARDHA, BHANDARA, and CHANDA. This region has no great elevation. It

[*Sentence continued on page* 352.

AREA AND POPULATION OF TERRITORY UNDER THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CHIEF COMMISSIONER OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES (1877).

UNDER DIRECT BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.			
Divisions.	Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Population. (Census of 1872.)
Nágpur,	Nágpur,*	3,786	631,109
	Bhandára,	3,922	564,813
	Chánda,	9,700	534,431
	Wardha,*	2,401	354,720
	Bálághát,*	3,141	302,482‡
	Upper Godávari,†	1,085	52,120
Jabalpur (Jubbulpore),	Jabalpur (Jubbulpore),	3,918	528,859
	Ságar (Saugor),	4,005	527,725
	Damoh,*	2,799	269,642
	Seoni (Sivaní),*	3,123	299,856‡
	Mandlá,	4,719	213,018
Narbadá (Nerbudda),	Hoshangábád,*	4,376	440,186
	Narsinhpur,	1,916	339,395
	Betúl,*	3,904	284,055
	Chhindwára,*	3,853	316,095
	Nimár,	3,340	211,176
Chhatísgarh,	Ráipur,	11,885	1,093,405
	Biláspur,	7,798	715,398
	Sambalpur,	4,407	523,034
Total under direct British Administration,		84,078†	8,201,519
NATIVE STATES.			
Chutiá Nágpur, 15 Mahals, formerly under Bengal South-West Frontier Agency—			
Bástar,		13,062	78,856
Kárond,		3,745	133,483
Ráigarh Bargarh,		1,486	63,304
Sárangarh,		540	37,091
Patná,		2,399	98,636
Sonpur,		906	130,713
Ráirakhol,		833	12,660
Bámra,		1,988	53,613
Sakti,		115	8,394
Kawarda,		887	75,462
Khondka,		174	29,590
Kánker,		639	43,542
Kháiragarh,		940	122,264
Nándgáon,		905	148,454
Makrái,		215	13,648
Total Native States,		28,834	1,049,710
Grand Total,		112,912	9,251,229

* The alterations in regard to these Districts since the Census are due to rearrangement of boundaries and more accurate survey.

† On 1st April 1874, the two *táluks* of Bhadráchalam and Rakapilli, in the Upper Godávari District, with an area estimated at 885 square miles, were transferred from the Central Provinces to Madras. Information of the population so transferred has not been received. The Upper Godávari District is about to be amalgamated with that of Chánda.

‡ The alteration of population in these Districts since the Census is due to a transfer of territory from Seoni to Bálághát.

Sentence continued from page 350.]
rests principally on gneissose and trap rocks, the former predominating in Nágpur and Bhandára, the latter in Wardha, eastwards. Below the *ghâts* lies the Chhatísgarh plain, a low expanse of red soil, containing the Districts of RAIPUR and BILASPUR. In this Division is also included the District of SAMBALPUR, a rugged and jungly country, composed of crystalline and metamorphic rocks. Sambalpur is not, however, part of Chhatísgarh proper, either geographically or historically. It was originally attached to the South-Western Frontier Agency of Bengal, and lies principally in the valley of the Mahánadi. Last of all, to the extreme south, almost cut off by forests and wild semi-independent States, is a strip of territory, of varied geological structure, stretching along the left bank of the Godávari, styled the UPPER GODAVARI DISTRICT.

Thus a hill plateau is succeeded by a lowland plain, and again a larger and loftier plateau by a larger plain, ending in a mass of hill and forest, which is probably the wildest part of the whole Indian peninsula. But even the comparatively level portions of this area are broken by isolated peaks and straggling hill ranges; and nowhere in India are the changes of soil and vegetation more rapid and marked than in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) country. 'There,' writes Mr. Charles Grant, 'in the pleasant winter months, the eye may range over miles of green corn-lands, broken only by low black boundary ridges or dark twisting foot-paths. The horizon is bounded here and there by hill ranges, which seem to rise abruptly from the plain; but on approaching them, the heavy green of their slopes is found to be divided from the softer hues of the young wheat by broad belts of gravelly soil,—here carpeted with short sward and dotted with noble trees, there uncovered, and contrasting their brown-red tints with the deep black of the valley lands. But the greenness of English scenery is wanting. It is only in favoured reaches of the rivers, where the pools never dry up, that the water-loving shrubs keep their verdure and brilliancy throughout the year.' On the Sátpuras, the grander alternations of scenery are even more frequent. 'The hills are higher and more abrupt, the black-soil deposits deeper, and the water supply more abundant. In the midst of the grim rolling plateaux of basalt lurk little valleys cultivated like gardens,—oases of sugar-cane and opium,—which, but for their inaccessibility, would tempt away the best cultivators of the plains.' The rivers, with their rapid streams and limpid waters, lend a singular charm to the Province. Such is the sacred NARBADA, as it dashes through the glens, and leaps in wild waterfalls from the heights of Amarkantak, its bright waters glistening against the black basaltic rock, or as it winds along the narrow channel between the glittering 'Marble Rocks,' or works itself into the whirlpool of Makrái; and such are

the WARDHA and WAINGANGA, foaming, after the rains, in torrents along their deep and rocky beds; and the Godávari, where it forces a passage through the heart of the mountains which mark the frontier of the Province. At this point the Godávari may justly claim the title of the Indian Rhine. Pent in for 20 miles between the hills, the river flows in a deep and narrow channel, with a fierce current that sometimes lashes itself into boiling whirlpools, till, escaping from its prison, it spreads itself in a broad smooth surface, and, flowing on in a mighty stream, leaves the Central Provinces behind. To the east, in Bhandára and parts of Chánda District, lies the lake country of the Province. 'There,' says Sir R. Temple, 'an irrigation tank is not a piece of water with regular banks, crowned with rows or avenues of trees, with an artificial dyke and sluices, and with fields around it, but it is an irregular expanse of water; its banks are formed by rugged hills, covered with low forests that fringe the margins where the wild beasts repair to drink; its dykes, mainly shaped out of spurs from the hills, are thrown athwart the hollows, a part only being formed by masonry; its sluices often consist of chasms or fissures in the rock; its broad surface is often, as the monsoon approaches, lashed into surging and crested waves.' NAWAGAON, the largest of these lakes, is 17 miles in circumference, with a depth in places of 90 feet. Nor have the Hindus failed to appreciate the beauties of the country. Wherever, as at BHERAGHAT, a splendid view unfolds itself; wherever, as at Muktagiri, the plash of a waterfall echoes through the trees,—there in all likelihood rises an ancient temple. The spirit of the old native worship yet lives in the legends that consecrate these lovely scenes.

Forests.—The Central Provinces cover an area of 113,797 square miles, of which little more than a fourth is under cultivation. Yet the forests are not so important as might have been expected. The greater part of the waste land is covered by scrub jungle, and produces but little valuable timber. Nature may have doomed the stony highlands to barrenness, but the improvidence of man has desolated many of the fertile tracts. Each most valuable tree has had its special enemy. The teak fell before the ravages of the charcoal-burner, who found that its close-grained wood produced the most concentrated fuel. The *sál* (Shorea robusta), when tapped, supplies an excellent resin; and many a noble tree has consequently been girdled and left to perish. But still more destructive has proved the habit of *dáhya* or nomad cultivation by fire, now fortunately on the wane. At present, the northern part of the Province is almost destitute of tree forests. In the south, amid the scanty population in the hill chiefships which border the Nágpur and Chhatísgarh plains, the forests have suffered least. Under the system of conservancy introduced in 1860, some progress has been made in arresting the course of destruction. The woodland is divided into

reserved forests, under the special control and management of the Forest Department, with an aggregate area in 1876 of 2391 square miles; and unreserved or excess wastes, which, at the Settlement, Government retained for itself. These latter are managed by the District officers. Experience shows that wherever fire is kept out of the forests, the power of natural reproduction may be relied upon. In 1876-77, an attempt was made to protect 517,890 acres; and actual protection from fire was afforded to 504,824 acres. The total cost amounted to £1010, the average being £1, 4s. per square mile.

Coal.—The large coal-fields which extend under various parts of the Central Provinces, and the excellence of the iron ores, gave rise to expectations which at present seem unlikely to be realized. For the most part, on analysis, the coal has proved of inferior quality. It contains neither sufficient fixed carbon for iron smelting, nor combustible volatile gases to such an amount as to adapt it for generating steam. At present the only important colliery is that at Warora, which turned out 10,700 tons of fair quality in 1876. Since then, however, the production has largely increased, in consequence of the consumption of this coal by the Great Indian Peninsular Railway Company.

Aborigines.—The Sátpura plateau, stretching east and west for nearly 600 miles, with the wheat fields of the Narbadá valley on the one hand and the rice lands of the Nágpur plain on the other, forms the true barrier between Northern and Southern India. In this natural fastness, the so-called aboriginal tribes have found refuge, retreating on either side before the waves of Aryan immigration which swept forward from the Deccan and from Hindustán. Army after army invaded the Deccan, and Hindu dynasties rose and fell; but the forests of Gondwána lay apart from the line of march; and while the ravages of war wasted the rich cities of the plains, the refugees were slowly gathering strength and confidence. By degrees they issued from the Sátpura Hills, and occupied the rich valleys beneath. But the superiority of the Aryan race manifested itself in peace as in war; and step by step the aboriginal tribes were driven back a second time to the stony uplands, as the Hindu farmers in increasing numbers cleared the fertile plains below. Those who remained were absorbed by the higher race, and now form the lowest stratum of the Hindu social system.

History.—The early history of the Province consists entirely of the conjectural interpretation of fragmentary inscriptions, which record the names of unknown princes, and relate their deeds with oriental hyperbole. We learn how their beneficence made earth better than heaven, how the world trembled at the march of their elephants, and how the sea was swollen by the tears of queens widowed by their conquests. But from this source little positive knowledge can be obtained. It seems established that in the 5th century a race of foreign

(*yavana*) origin ruled from the Sátpura plateau. Again, between the 10th and 13th centuries, we can discern a distinguished line of Lunar Rájput princes governing the country round Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), while a territory south of the Sátpuras was held by the fire-descended Pramára princes of Málwá. The Chánda dynasty of Gonds probably rose to power as early as the 10th or 11th century; and the Haihai-Bánsí kings of Chhatísgarh trace their origin to the remotest antiquity.

Before, however, we leave this dim and misty borderland, and pass into the realms of history, we are confronted by a problem, which deserves some notice. Who were the Gaulís? Were the historical Gond kingdoms preceded by a race of shepherd kings? On the Sátpura plateau, in Nimár and Ságar (Saugor) Districts, and in parts of the Nágpur Division, every ruin of an unknown age, every legend that cannot be traced to Hindu mythology, is assigned to the Gaulí princes. Of these shadowy personages the most striking is Asá, the Ahír chief, whose story Ferishta relates. Towards the close of the 14th century, there dwelt on the summit of a lofty hill in Khandesh a rich herdsman chief, whose ancestors had held their estates for 700 years. He had ten thousand cattle, twenty thousand sheep, and a thousand mares. His followers numbered two thousand, and he had built himself a strong fortress. But the people, to whom his benevolence had endeared him, still called him by the familiar name of Asá the Ahír (herdsman), and thus his fort has received the name of Asírgarh. It is, however, with regard to Deogarh that the Gaulí traditions gather most consistence. Deogarh was, it is said, the last seat of Gaulí power; and the names yet survive of the successive chiefs, until Játbá, the favourite and minister of Mansúr and Gansúr, the two last Gaulí princes, murdered his benefactors, and founded the Gond dynasty of Deogarh.

But whatever importance we may be disposed to attach to the legendary Gaulís, the history proper of Gondwána only begins in the 16th century. Ferishta indeed mentions a line of princes, whether Gond or not is uncertain, who reigned at Kherlá on the Sátpura plateau, and enjoyed 'great wealth and power, being possessed of all the hills of Gondwána and other countries.' They first appear in 1398 A.D.; and for a brief space they succeeded in maintaining a precarious independence, by playing off the rulers of Málwá and the Báhmani kings against each other. But, in 1467, Kherlá fell before the Báhmani power, and, after a last expiring effort, the Kherlá dynasty disappears from history. But in the next century the Gonds asserted themselves with more lasting success. As the Muhammadan power of Málwá gradually decayed, Sangrám Sáh, the forty-eighth Rájá of the Gond line of Garhá-Mandla, issued from the Mandla highlands, and extended his dominion over 52 *gárhs*, comprising the present District of Ságar (Saugor), Damoh, Hoshangábád, Narsinhpur, and Jabalpur, besides Mandla and Seoni.

In the 16th century, also, the almost immemorial Haihai-Bánsí line of Chhatísgarh emerges into the light of history; and in the succeeding century, the Gond princes of Deogarh transformed themselves from obscure aboriginal chiefs into a powerful Muhammadan dynasty. From the rise of the Gond power until the advent of the Marhattás, Gondwána enjoyed practical independence. The Gonds willingly owned the supremacy of the Emperor at Delhi, and the distant monarch wisely contented himself with nominally including in his dominions the wild and rugged country of the Gonds. With all its drawbacks, this was a happy period for Gondwána. The people prospered under a rude feudal system; and the tanks and tombs and palaces, and above all the battlemented stone walls, long since too wide for the shrunken city within, testify to the ability and beneficence of the princes. Indeed, the rulers appear to have been in advance of their subjects; and much of the improvement then effected arose from the prudent liberality with which the wiser Rájás encouraged Hindu husbandmen to settle in the land. But the invasion of the Marhattás abruptly ended the peaceful progress of Gondwána. In the ten years from 1741 to 1751, the Bhonslá family established its dominion over the three kingdoms of Deogarh, Chánda, and Chhatísgarh, while the last Gond dynasty, that of Garhá-Mandla, fell before the same race in 1781. The founders of the Marhattá power had the virtues as well as the vices of military leaders; and at first the Gond people felt the effect of the conquest less than their feudal chiefs. But by the end of the 18th century, the Marhattás began to suffer from the want of money, and every variety of fiscal expedient was contrived to grind taxes from the unfortunate people. In short, a poor man could neither shelter nor clothe himself, nor earn his bread, nor eat it, nor marry, nor rejoice, nor even ask his gods for better weather, without contributing on each individual act to the necessities of his alien rulers. This oppression brought about its natural result. The ruined husbandman forsook his farm, and joined the robber-bands that wandered through the country. By degrees these increased in number; and from their standing camps in the Narbadá valley, a marauding cavalry, under the name of Pindárís, spread desolation over the land. Encumbered neither by tents nor baggage, and riding in parties of two or three thousand, they carried fire and sword wherever they went, even to the gates of the capital. So lasting has proved the terror they inspired, that to this day there are places in the valley of the Wardha where the shopkeepers will not publicly expose their goods. Thus, harassed in every way, the country had become utterly exhausted, when, in 1818, Apá Sáhib was finally deposed. At that time the English annexed the region since known as the Ságar (Saugor) and Narbadá (Nerbudda) territories, while undertaking the management of what remained of the Bhonslá kingdom

during the minority of Raghojí III. Raghojí attained his majority in 1830; but on his death in 1853, without a child, his dominions lapsed to the British Government. At first, it may be that the Administration erred in overrating the resources of the country; but under the more lenient assessment of later years an era of prosperity has begun.

In 1860, the Nizám ceded a strip of territory on the left bank of the Godávari, now styled the Upper Godávari District. In 1861, the 'Central Provinces' were formed by the union of the Ságar (Saugor) and Narbadá (Nerbudda) territories with the Nágpur Province. In 1864, the new administration obtained an accession of territory by the addition of the Nimár District; and in the following year it received a further accretion of 700 square miles of country, which formerly constituted the Native State of BIJERAGHOGARH in Central India, but had been confiscated in 1857.

Aborigines.—Though Gondwána comprised the greater part of the Central Provinces, the non-Aryan tribes now form a minority of the population. The Census of 1872 returned their total number at 2,014,731, of whom 1,669,835 inhabited British territory, and 344,896 the Feudatory States. The proportion of these tribes to the total population of each District varies from 62·5 in Mandla, to only 4·63 in Ságar. Though the term 'aborigines' is commonly applied to them, it must be remembered that this is merely a convenient expression, serving to distinguish the tribes in question from races of Aryan descent. In the gravels and clays which apparently mark the Miocene and the Pliocene periods, remains of animals now extinct in India coexist with the bones of others still found in the Central Provinces. Of later date, however, and scattered through the upper soils of large areas, agate knives and implements have been dug up in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Nágpur country; and to a yet later epoch belong the polished celts, axes, and other shaped stone implements, which exactly resemble those abundantly found in Northern Europe. Beyond these indications, we know nothing of any inhabitants of the Provinces who may have preceded the so-called aboriginal tribes. These consist of a southern and a northern section, distinguished as the Dravidian and the Kolarian races. From their curious intermixture within a limited area, Mr. Hislop concludes that the Dravidians, entering India by the north-west, here crossed the stream of Kolarian immigrants from the north-east. One of the Gond hymns, which he has preserved, relates how the Gonds were created near Mount Diwálagiri in the Himálayas; how their gluttonous and impure habits caused a foul odour to arise, which offended the nostrils of Mahádeva; and how Mahádeva, while bathing, made a squirrel out of part of his body, and sent it to flee with tail erect before the Gonds. The Gonds pursued the squirrel, and followed it into a cave, which was the god's prison on earth. Then Mahádeva

arose and placed a stone 16 cubits long at the entrance of the cave, and stationed a giant to guard it. But four brothers had remained behind. They travelled on over hill and dale, till by the jungly road they reached Káchikopa Lohárgarh, the Iron valley in the Red Hills. There they found a giant, who was at first inclined to eat them; but becoming pacified, gave them his seven daughters in marriage. From these unions sprang the present Gond race. This legend, at any rate, is consistent with the theory that the Gonds entered the country from the north, and intermarried with the inhabitants they found there. Pointing to the same conclusion is the fact, that till lately they buried their dead with the feet turned northward, so that the corpse might be ready to be borne to the home of its people. But apart from these speculations, the Gonds justly claim attention as in some degree a progressive race, which, with Aryan peoples all around, succeeded in forming, and for 200 years upholding an independent power, and which still maintains its separate nationality. From the upper classes, indeed, the pure Gond is rapidly disappearing. Most of the so-called Gond chiefs, and of the families which call themselves 'Ráj-Gond' or 'Royal Gond,' are of mixed blood, though with the aboriginal type still dominant. Yet while they outdo the Hindus themselves in ceremonial refinements, purifying even their faggots before using them for cooking, they retain a taint of their old mountain superstitions; some still seek to atone for their desertion of the gods of their fathers, by worshipping them in secret once every four or five years, and by placing cow's flesh to their lips, wrapped in a cloth, so as not to break too openly with the Hindu divinities. But the plebeian or Dhúr-Gond is generally of purer blood, owing to the contempt with which the Hindus regard him. The lowest of the Hindu castes ranks above him, and only the Mhárs and Dhers take place beneath him in the social scale. To him the contact of a higher civilisation has brought harm rather than good. Amid a Hindu population, his stalwart limbs make him a useful drudge, but his spirit is broken, and his old frankness has vanished. In the highlands, however, the Gond, less contaminated by Hindu influence, appears to greater advantage. In the Feudatory State of Bastár, the hill tribes constitute at least three-fifths of the population. There the Máriás form the most numerous caste. The Máriá carries a small iron knife in his girdle, and a hatchet hangs from his shoulders; but his favourite weapon is the bow. This is made of bamboo; and a strip of the bark of the same useful plant, secured by cords to the ends, supplies the bowstring; the arrows are of many forms, but all pointed with iron. The Máriás are most skilful archers; they use the feet to bend the bow, while they draw the string with both hands, sending an arrow almost through the body of a deer. The Márís are still wilder, and invariably fly from their grass-built huts on the approach of

strangers. Once a year, an officer collects their tribute for the Rájá, which is paid in kind. He beats a *tom-tom* outside the village, and forthwith hides himself; whereupon the inhabitants bring out whatever they have to give, and deposit it in an appointed spot. The customs of the different hill tribes are very similar. The Bhíls, indeed, are singular in the jealousy they exhibit about the honour of their women. The Halbás, who in Bastár make their living by distilling spirits, and worship a pantheon of glorified distillers, have, unlike the other wild tribes, settled down in Ráipur as successful cultivators, holding their own in the open country.

Physical Appearance, etc.—Nearly all the hill tribes have the black skin, the flat nose, and the thick lips, which at once proclaim them of other than Aryan blood. Nearly all dress in the same way. For both sexes, a cloth wound about the waist constitutes the chief article of attire. Necklaces of beads, ear-rings of brass and iron, brass bracelets, and girdles of *towrís* or twisted cords, find favour in the eyes of young men and women. The latter often add chaplets of the large white seeds of the *kusa* grass, or even a cloth flung carelessly across the shoulder. They seldom wear any covering on the head; and some, as the Máriás, shave away the hair, leaving only a top knot. The ladies, however, commonly add to their attractions by wearing false hair. In the hymn already cited, the god alleges as one cause of his displeasure against the first created Gonds, that they did not bathe for six months together. It must be confessed that in this respect the hill tribes of to-day do not belie their ancestry; and though they carry their scanty costume with a certain grace, their dirtiness, and the tattoo marks on their faces, arms, and thighs, have a repellent effect on European observers. For the most part light-hearted and easy-tempered, when once their shyness is overcome, they prove exceedingly communicative; but while naturally frank, and far more truthful than Hindus, they are nevertheless arrant thieves, though their pilfering is generally managed in the simplest and most maladroit manner. All are fond of music, particularly the Gadbhás, who celebrate their festivals by dancing to the sound of a drum and a fife. Sometimes they form a ring by joining hands, and advance in step towards the centre, and again retire while circling round and round. When wearied with dancing, they sing. A man steps out of the crowd, and sings a verse *impromptu;* a woman rejoins, and the pair chant in alternate strains, for the most part rallying each other on personal defects. All are addicted to drinking. In short, so slight are the differences between the various hill tribes, that in Chánda, where the forest country meets the more civilised plain, the Gonds, as the highest class among them, are recruited from the wilder clans; and the ambitious Máriá styles himself first a Koitúr, then a Forest or Jungly Gond, and at last, as time goes on, claims the dignity of a Gond pure and simple.

Agriculture.—The indolence and improvidence of uncivilised peoples manifests itself especially in the manner in which these hill tribes cultivate the soil. The husbandman who practises the *dáhya* system first seeks on the hill-slope for a new piece of ground. This he clears of jungle, and then covers it over with logs of wood, heaping up smaller brushwood on the top. Just before the rains, when the hot weather has thoroughly dried the newly-cut wood, he sets fire to the pile. After the first rainfall, he scatters the millet, or other inferior grain, among the ashes; or, where the ground is steep, merely throws the seed in a lump along the top of the plot, and leaves it to be washed to its place by the rains. This facile mode of husbandry, now happily less practised than formerly, has not only tended to discourage all habits of settled industry, but must be held responsible for the ruin which has overtaken so many of the once magnificent forests of the Central Provinces.

Religion.—Most different accounts have been given of the Gond religion. Mr. Hislop thinks that their pantheon consists of fifteen gods. At Betúl, it is said, the Gonds count at least twelve religious sects, distinguished by the number of deities they respectively worship. The usual number is seven; but the lowest caste adores an indefinite number, being those which chanced to be omitted when the original distribution of gods to each sect took place. But the fact is, that the religious beliefs of these tribes vary from village to village; and nowhere has their theological system attained such a pitch of precision as to enable them to exactly define the number of their gods. While admitting the existence of other deities, each village worships those of whom it happens to be cognizant; and these seldom exceed three or four in number. In Mandla, Thákur Deo is held in great reverence. He is the household god, presiding over the homestead and the farmyard; and, being omnipresent, requires no image to represent him. The people of the village of Játá, however, have the happiness to possess a few links of an ancient chain in which the god manifests himself. Gifted with the power of motion, this chain sometimes appears hanging from a *ber* tree, sometimes on a stone below, sometimes in the bed of a neighbouring water-course. Each of these movements is duly made the occasion of some humble sacrifice, to the advantage of the attendant Báigá priest. In many places Ghansyám Deo is greatly adored. His worshippers build for him a rude hut about a hundred yards from the village. In one corner they plant a bamboo with a red or yellow rag tied to the end; and, hanging up a withered garland or two, and strewing about the floor a few blocks of rough stone smeared with vermilion, they dedicate the place to Ghansyám Deo. There every November the whole village assembles to worship, with sacrifices of fowls and spirits, or even a pig. Presently the god descends on the

head of one of the worshippers, who staggers to and fro, bereft of his senses, till he wildly rushes into the jungle. Then, happy that a scape-goat has been found for the sins of the village, the people send two or three men after him, who bring the victim back. Throughout the Central Provinces the Gonds worship cholera and small-pox, under the names of Márí and Mátá Deví. To appease the wrath of these divinities, they offer sacrifices; and, cleaning their villages, they place the sweepings on a road or track, in the hope that some traveller will be infected, and so convey the disease away into another village. But in addition to his gods, the Gond peoples the forest in which he lives with spirits of all kinds, most of them able and only too willing to inflict evil upon him. To propitiate them, he sets up '*páts*,' consisting of a bamboo, with a piece of rag tied to the end, a heap of stones, or the like. There the spirit takes up his abode, and then, at each festival in the family, the spirit has his share of the banquet.

The Báigás, with whom some authorities identify the Bháimiás, are the acknowledged priests of the hill tribes. Physically finer men than the ordinary Gond, and surpassing him in courage and skill as sportsmen, they have won for themselves a respect which is rarely abused; and in any question, whether of a religious observance or of a boundary dispute, their decision is final. When a Gond falls victim to a tiger, the Báigá is called in to lay the spirit of the dead, and to charm away the additional power which the tiger has derived from his prey. The Báigá goes through certain movements, representing the tiger in his fatal spring; and, lastly, takes up with his teeth a mouthful of the blood-stained earth. This done, the jungle is free again. While worshipping the same gods as the Gonds, the Báigás have a special reverence for Máí Dharitrí—mother earth.

How far serpent-worship prevailed in Gondwána has given rise to much speculation. The Gond of to-day would be more likely to eat a snake than to worship it. But traces of a serpent cult yet remain, the most curious of these being the ancient temple of Buram Deva in Chhatísgarh. It contains no image but that of a cobra, near which are two inscriptions, one being a list of twenty-two kings, who trace their descent to the union of a snake with the daughter of a holy man who lived south of the Narbadá. The name of Nágpur, and the number of non-Aryan families which claim a Nágbánsí connection, seems to show that snake-worship formerly existed in Gondwána. Probably it was never more than an aristocratic cult, confined to certain houses. As its practice ceased, the claim to serpent descent died out as well, and the existing Nágbansí families have become, or aspire to be, Rájputs.

That the shy and timid hill tribes should be capable of offering human sacrifices has appeared incredible to some writers; but the

custom has existed at certain places within the memory of the present generation. In the temples of Kálí in Chánda and Lánjí, and in the famous shrine of Danteswari in Bastar, many a human head has been presented on the altar. The victim was taken to the temple after sunset, and shut up within its dismal walls. In the morning when the door was opened, he was found dead, to the glory of the great goddess, who had shown her power during the night by descending to suck his blood.

Births and marriages are celebrated by some peculiar customs, and no ceremony is reckoned complete without a drinking bout. The pretended abduction of the bride forms part of the wedding ceremony. Sometimes a visitor will serve for his wife during a stated number of years, after the manner of Jacob; but more frequently the wife is purchased by the bridegroom. For this reason, the cheaper plan of marrying a near relation finds favour with the poor or frugal lover. As a rule, the Gonds bury their dead, and sometimes kill a cow over the grave; but the more prosperous families now sometimes burn an adult corpse, after the manner of the Hindus. 'Waking' the dead forms an important part of the funeral rites.

Hindu Population.—The gradual displacement of the hill tribes in one of their last refuges by Hindu races is clearly shown by the simple fact, that whereas the so-called aborigines number barely over two millions, the Hindus, in 1862, numbered 5,879,950, thus forming 71·69 per cent. of the inhabitants of the Province. The denser the population, the greater is the proportion of Hindus, varying from 85 per cent. in the Nágpur plain and Wardha valley to 57 per cent. on the Sátpura plateau.

A few isolated hermits were the first Aryans who ventured to invade these central forests; and the Rámáyana laments the sufferings these holy men endured amid the savage tribes. 'These shapeless and ill-looking monsters testify their abominable character by various cruel and terrific displays. These base-born wretches implicate the hermits in impure practices, and perpetrate the greatest outrages. Changing their shapes and hiding in the thickets adjoining the hermitages, these frightful beings delight in terrifying the devotees. They cast away the sacrificial ladles and vessels, they pollute the cooked oblations, and utterly defile the offerings with blood. These faithless creatures inject frightful sounds into the ears of the faithful and austere eremites. At the time of sacrifice, they snatch away the jars, the flowers, the fuel, and the sacred grass of these sober-minded men.' But though ruled by Rájput chiefs at an earlier period, the country was not really opened out to Hindu settlement till the time of Akbar, whose armies penetrated to the easternmost parts of the valley of the Narbadá. The oldest rupees found buried here, date from this reign. The mass, however of the Hindu population is of later date, and may probably be referred to the time of Aurangzeb. Be-

tween the Hindus north and those south of the Sátpuras the contrast both in character and appearance is striking. The Marhattá of the Nágpur rice-lands has neither the energy nor the independence of the peasant who tills the wheat-fields by the Narbadá; and on a festal day, when a southern crowd presents a mass of white clothing and enormous red turbans, the more northern people may be known by their costume of *mahwa* green, and their jaunty head-dress of white cloth. Only five towns in the Province contain upwards of 20,000 inhabitants, viz. NAGPUR, 84,441; JABALPUR (JUBBULPORE), 55,188; KAMTHI (KAMPTEE), 48,831; SAGAR (SAUGOR), 45,655; and BURHANPUR, 29,303. The occupation of the mass of the people is agriculture; and castes which follow other pursuits, such as the Telís or oil-pressers (432,310) of the Nágpur country and the Chhatísgarh plain, and the Dhers (589,138), the chief thread-spinners and weavers of coarse cloth throughout the Province, are for the most part hard-working cultivators as well. The Koshtís, however, confine themselves to the manufacture of the finer kinds of cotton cloth. On them the rivalry of Manchester has pressed heavily, and of late years they have emigrated in large numbers, chiefly to Berar. In the Central Provinces they numbered 102,735 in 1872. But the most numerous castes are the Kunbís (451,713), a race of Marhattá descent, who form the backbone of the agricultural community throughout the Nágpur plain and the Wardha valley, so that the term Kunbí has come to be identical with cultivator; and the Kurmís (203,811) and Lodhís (222,493), the industrious husbandmen of the valley of the Narbadá. The Bráhmans in the Central Provinces in 1872 numbered 269,610.

Local Sects.—While worshipping the usual divinities of the Hindu pantheon, the Hindus of the Central Provinces, more especially the Jhárias, or older settlers, have contracted various local beliefs and habits. The adoration of the dead prevails universally. Thus, in Hoshangábád, the Ghorí (Muhammadan) kings of Málwá have attained the dignity of gods, while near Bhandára the villagers worship at the tomb of an English lady. Most castes place little or no restriction on widow-marriage, and generally the marriage tie is but little regarded, illegitimate children succeeding to property equally with those born in wedlock. But the non-Aryan belief in the powers of evil especially dominates the conquering race. Throughout the Province, Mátá Deví, the goddess of smallpox, is held in veneration. The prevalence of witchcraft also presses heavily on the Hindu. So infested by witches was the wild hill country from Mandla to the eastern coast, that at one time no prudent father would let his daughter marry into a family which did not count among its members at least one of the dangerous sisterhood. Even now, should a man's bullock die, his crop fail, or sickness befall him, he imputes the calamity to witchcraft. The suspected sorcerer in

such a case is arrested, and a fisherman's net being wound about his head to prevent him from bewitching his guards, his innocence is tested by the flicker of a flame or the fall of a *pípal* leaf. In Bastár this ordeal is followed by sewing him up in a sack, and letting him down into water waist-deep. If he succeeds in raising his head above water, his guilt is held manifest. Then the villagers beat the culprit with rods of tamarind or the castor-oil plant, and shave his head. Lastly, they knock out his teeth, so that the witch can neither mutter charms nor revenge himself by assuming the form of a tiger.

Perhaps the most interesting movement among the Hindus of the Province is the religious and social uprising of the Chamárs of Chhatísgarh. Upper India contains no more despised race. In the distribution of employments nothing had been left to them but the degrading handicraft of skinning dead cattle. But in the plain of Chhatísgarh the want of labour had admitted them to the rank of cultivators, and prepared them to break the humiliating tradition. About fifty years ago, Ghásí Dás, an unlettered but remarkable visionary, withdrew into the wilderness, after bidding his followers meet him in six months' time at Girod. Thither, on the appointed day, the Chamárs crowded, and, in the quiet of the early morning, the prophet appeared descending from the rocky height above the village. There he delivered his message from heaven. He proclaimed that all men are equal; he forbade the worship of idols; and he named himself as the high priest of the new faith, adding that the office would remain in his family for ever. On the death of Ghásí Dás, his eldest son, Bálak Dás, succeeded to the primacy; and such was the enmity excited among the Hindus, that he was murdered in 1860. Nearly all the Chamárs of Chhatísgarh have accepted the new religion, adopting the name of Sat Námís. They have no temple or form of prayer; but every morning and evening they fall prostrate before the sun, exclaiming, 'Sat nám! Sat nám! Sat nám!' or, 'God! God! God!' They eat no meat, and drink only water; but a schism has arisen among them regarding the use of tobacco. In sexual matters their practice is lax; but the allegation that Sat Námí brides associate with the high priest before entering their husbands' home is, they maintain, a calumny of their enemies. In 1872, the Sat Námís numbered 265,985. They form a loyal and industrious class of the population.

Of Muhammadans there were, in 1872, only 237,401, and many of these of a very hybrid sort. The Jains numbered 36,583. There were no Buddhists, and less than 5000 Native Christians.

Education.—According to the Census of 1872, out of 1,806,496 male children not exceeding twelve years, 35,553 were under instruction, the percentage being highest among the Jains. In 1877, there were altogether 1641 schools, of which 1567 were devoted to primary education.

The scholars numbered 83,441, the average daily attendance being 52,898. Though 98 primary schools were devoted to girls, female education progresses but slowly. The conception is in advance of the people, and the difficulty of providing a suitable teaching staff forms a practical obstacle.

Agriculture.—In the year 1876-77, the area under cultivation was estimated at 15,644,703 acres, of which rice, wheat, and other food grains occupied over 12,200,000 acres, or about 84 per cent. of the whole. Cotton was grown on 802,437 acres, chiefly in Nágpur, Wardha, and Ráipur; and these three Districts and Bilâspur have also the largest area under oil-seeds. The cultivation of tobacco is almost confined to Ráipur.

Commerce and Manufactures.—The only important manufactures consist of weaving, and smelting and working iron ore. The tissue work of Burhanpur, and the richly embroidered wearing apparel produced in parts of Nágpur and Bhandára command an extensive sale beyond the Province; and the excellence of the ores used near Gádarwára deserves notice. The internal trade is conducted by means of markets and fairs, the latter of which for the most part had a religious origin and still retain a religious character. The chief external trade is with Bombay westward. The principal imports consist of cotton piece-goods, hardware, salt, cocoa-nuts, European liquors, tobacco, etc.; and the principal exports are raw cotton, grain, *ghí*, oil-seeds, and Indian piece-goods. Next in importance is the trade with the North-Western Provinces and Calcutta, the main imports being sugar from Mírzápur, piece-goods, indigo, jute bags, European liquors, etc.; and the exports, cotton for the mills at Cawnpore, *lac*, iron, grain, etc. With the Central India States a considerable traffic exists; but with the Nizám's Dominions and Berar, and other parts of India, the trade is comparatively small. The Málwá opium, which passes through the Province for export to China, now goes through Nimár to Bombay by rail without being registered as in former years. Excluding this opium and other through trade, the totals may be thus presented:—Imports, in 1875-76, 108,140 tons—value, £4,917,579; in 1876-77, 99,203 tons—value, £3,323,283: exports, in 1875-76, 245,480 tons—value, £3,196,040; in 1876-77, 290,903 tons—value £3,667,348. The increase of exports in 1876-77 was in a great degree owing to the unusual amount of grain sent to the famine Districts in that year.

Means of Communication.—The want of good means of communication, especially important in a land-locked region, has greatly retarded the progress of the Central Provinces. After the rains, the larger rivers become navigable, but the rocky barriers which occur in their channels restrict the use of this mode of transit. In 1877, the total length of water communication was returned at 1373 miles. The making of roads, which

may be said to date from the establishment of the British power, is rendered difficult by the nature of the country; and, taught by experience, the local engineering department has now laid down the principle that black soil roads should be constructed on the principles applicable to a morass. In 1877, the total mileage of made roads throughout the Province was returned at 2300. Nágpur forms the centre of the road system. From that city branch off—the northern road, to Seoni and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore); the eastern line, by Bhandára and Ráipur, to Sambalpur; the north-western, to Chhindwára; and the southern and south-western, to Chánda or Wardha. But besides these roads, of which the first only can be called complete, numerous ancient tracks wind over hills and across the rocky beds of streams, along which the Banjárás drive their long trains of pack-bullocks. The Great Indian Peninsular Railway enters the Central Provinces near Burhánpur, and runs along the valley of the Narbadá, passing Hoshangábád, Narsinhpur, and Jabalpur, till it emerges from the north-east corner of the Province, near Balihrí. Starting from Bhusáwal, a tributary line connects Wardha and Nágpur with the main railway, supplying communication with the coal-fields of Warora. A further branch is being constructed from Nágpur to Chhatísgarh, the completion of which will open up the great granary of the Central Provinces.

Administration.—The administration is carried on by a Chief Commissioner, aided by a Secretary and an Assistant Secretary, in direct subordination to the Government of India. The courts, civil and criminal, are separately controlled by a chief judge, under the name of Judicial Commissioner. The administrative staff consists of 4 Commissioners, 19 Deputy Commissioners, 17 Assistant Commissioners, 24 Extra Assistant Commissioners, and 50 *tahsíldárs* or sub-collectors, who are distributed over 19 Districts, grouped into 4 Divisions. The police force, consisting of 18 District Superintendents, 2 assistant District Superintendents, 52 inspectors, and 7417 petty officers and constables, is controlled by an inspector-general; but in its executive functions is subordinate to the District authorities. Education, forest conservancy, and vaccination have separate establishments, though they receive aid from the regular civil staff. The medical staff is directly subordinate to the executive authorities, though the heads of the Medical Department throughout India exercise a general supervision. The Public Works Department owns no subordination to any local authority but the Chief Commissioner, to whom the provincial chief engineer is secretary in that branch of the administration. In 1876-77, the imperial revenue amounted to £941,734, of which £614,653 was derived from land. There are 57 municipalities, the total income of which during 1876-77 amounted to £67,290, and their total expenditure to £70,769. Together they

contained a population of 650,087, and the incidence of municipal taxation averaged 1s. 8d. per head.

Nearly every form of land tenure found in India exists in the Central Provinces. Besides the estates of feudatory and of non-feudatory chiefs, known as *zamíndárís*, the succession to which follows the law of primogeniture, what is termed the *malguzárí* tenure prevails most widely. The estate, whether the property of one or many owners, is managed by a single proprietor, and the land is chiefly held by cultivators whose rents are thrown into a common stock. The profits are divided, or the losses made up, in proportion to the respective shares of the different proprietors.

Chabrámau.—Town in Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 100 acres; pop. (1872), 5444. Situated on the Grand Trunk Road from Cawnpore to Shekhoábád, 17 miles south-west of Fatehgarh.

Chach. — Tract of country in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, consisting of a fertile valley, lying along the east bank of the Indus, north of the Attock Hills. The river channel here contains numerous islands, whose herbage, naturally watered by percolation, affords pasturage for the flocks of the surrounding country. Irrigation is impracticable in the valley itself; but a proposal is under consideration for a canal drawing its supplies from Ghází in Hazára District, which would give greater security to the produce of this naturally fruitful region. HAZRO is the chief commercial and agricultural centre of the Chach valley. The population consists of Hindus and Muhammadans.

Cháchra.—*Sub-táluk* of the Umarkot *táluk*, under the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency, Sind.—*See* UMARKOT *Táluk.*

Cháchra.—Municipal town in Umarkot *táluk*, under the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1649, being—183 Muhammadans (Rájput and Kumbar); and 1466 Hindus (chiefly Bráhmans, Lohános, Mengwárs, and Bhíls), shopkeepers, and traders. Municipal revenue in 1873-74, £153. Headquarters of *múkhtiárkár*, with civil and criminal courts.

Chádchat.—Petty State in the Pálanpur Agency, Bombay, known as Sultánpur and Chádchat. Estimated area, 440 square miles; pop. (1872), 18,193. The ruling family are Jhareja Rájputs, related to the Ráo of Cutch (Kachchh). Estimated revenue in 1875, £3500. The country is flat and open. There are three different kinds of soil—clayey, sandy, and black. Only one crop of the common grains is produced during the year. Salt is obtained in considerable quantities. There are no rivers, but numerous tanks, which in ordinary seasons retain water till March, when the inhabitants depend on their wells. Water is found from 5 to 20 feet deep.

Chágdah.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Húglí. Station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 38¼ miles from Calcutta. Chief mart of the jute export trade, giving its name to the fibre grown throughout the District. The river here is considered sacred; and on certain festivals, Hindus flock to Chágdah to wash away their sins in its water.

Cháibásá.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Singbhúm District, Bengal; situated on rising ground overlooking the right bank of the river Roro, and commanding a pleasant view. Lat. 22° 32′ 50″ N., long. 85° 50′ 57″ E.; pop. (1872), 4823, residing in about 600 houses, mostly built of mud or sun-burnt bricks. Besides the Deputy Commissioner's residence and the ordinary Government buildings, there are a few masonry houses, forming a short street, belonging to grain and cloth merchants. Jail, police station, post office, Government English school, charitable dispensary. A large fair, attended by 20,000 visitors from all parts of Singbhúm, is held annually at Christmas time; on the last day of the year, races, national dances, and athletic sports take place. Cháibásá is the only place in the District which has permanent shops, occupied by dealers in *tasar* silk cocoons, cloth, and grain.

Cháinpur.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated 5 miles west of Bhabua. Lat. 25° 2′ 15″ N., long. 83° 32′ 30″ E. Formerly the residence of the Cháinpur Rájás, who were expelled by the Patháns about 250 years ago; and still held by Muhammadans. Pop. (1872), 4029. The old fort of Cháinpur yet stands, surrounded by a ditch, and defended by a stone rampart flanked with bastions; it has a large gate in the northern, and a smaller one in the southern, curtain. The space within is covered with buildings, partly of brick and partly of stone, with several large wells. Mosque, in good condition, built as a tomb over Fateh Khán, who married a daughter of the Emperor Sher Sháh. Ruined temple of Mandeswari, built by one of the earlier Cháinpur Rájás, 5 miles east of the town.

Cháinpur.—Small village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 49′ 28″ N., long. 86° 34′ 16″ E. Noted only for its antiquity. The population consists almost entirely of Bráhmans, chiefly *pandits*, whose decisions are held in high esteem.

Cháitanpur.—Hill range in Kharsáwán estate, Singbhúm District, Bengal; greatest elevation, 2529 feet. Crossed by the old road to Chutiá Nágpur, but not accessible for wheeled traffic.

Cháitanpur.—Village with hot spring in Pátkúm *parganá*, Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 52′ 0″ N., long. 85° 54′ 0″ E.

Cháitpet (*Setterupettu*).—Village with fort in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 28′ N., long. 79° 23′ E. The fort was held by the Marhattás till 1690, when it was occupied by the Delhi troops. In 1750, Shanaváz Khán took refuge in it, but in the following year the

French were in possession. Again seized by the Marhattás, the French had to recapture it in 1757. Three years later, it fell to the British, after the battle of Wandiwash. In 1782, Haidar Alí fought under its walls a drawn battle with the Company's troops; and in the following year, by the treaty with the Marhattás, the place was given up in exchange for Cumbum in the Bálághát. As first constructed, this fort measured 540 yards by 430, and was defended by 14 towers.

Chak.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1258, of whom 801 are Muhammadans (chiefly Sitárs and Mahárs), and 457 Hindus (principally Bráhmans and Lohános). Travellers' bungalow.

Chak Bágar.—The most southerly of the three *chaks*, or Subdivisions, into which Hissár District, in the Punjab, is divided. Contains the towns of Tosham and Bhawáni. This *chak* takes its name from the tract of country in Bíkaner (Bickaneer) just beyond the Hissár border, which has from time immemorial been known as Bágar. The soil consists entirely of sand; and cultivation is dependent upon moderate rainfall, a too heavy downpour being as fatal as an insufficiency of rain. There is neither stream nor canal in the *chak*, and irrigation from wells is practically impossible. The lightness of the soil, on the other hand, renders ploughing a very simple operation; and, as camels are used for this purpose, as much as 40 acres have been ploughed by one team in a single day.

Chak Hariána.—The largest of the three *chaks*, or Subdivisions, into which Hissár District, in the Punjab, is divided. It occupies the centre of the District, and is divided into two almost equal portions by the Western Jumna (Jamuná) Canal. Number of villages, 292, out of the 659 which the District contains. The crops in this *chak* are absolutely dependent on abundant rainfall, the soil being hard, clayey, and quite unproductive, except when saturated with water. Well water is found at a depth of from 107 to 133 feet below the surface; and as the cost of constructing a well is seldom less than £150, this mode of irrigation is seldom attempted. The canal only irrigates 54 villages, lying immediately on its banks. The soil in the neighbourhood of these villages, though in all respects the same as elsewhere throughout the *chak*, has been rendered softer and richer by constant irrigation.

Chákí.—Stream in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; rises in the hills near the sanitarium of Dalhousie, and forms the eastern border of the District for some distance, collecting the drainage of the hill tract, and receiving tributaries from the main Chamba range. Three miles south of Pathánkot it divides into two branches,—one of which, flowing south, empties itself into the Beas (Biás) near Mírthal, while the other, which formerly turned westward to join the Rávi, has been dammed back by the works of the Bári Doáb Canal, whose line now crosses its

former channel. The whole body of water thus empties itself finally into the Beas (Biás).

Chakiriá.—Village and police station in Chittagong District, Bengal; situated on the Chittagong and Arakan road. Lat. 21° 45′ 0″ N., long. 92° 9′ 0″ E.

Chaklási.—Town in Káira District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 39′ N., long. 72° 59′ E. Pop. (1872), 7081.

Chak Náli.—The most northerly of the three *chaks*, or Subdivisions, into which Hissár District, in the Punjab, is divided. Contains the towns of Barwála and Fatehábád. This *chak* owes its name to the fact that it is traversed during the rains by two streams (*nálás*), the Ghaggar and one of its smaller branches. It is scantily populated, and only a small portion is under cultivation, the remainder being thickly covered with low brushwood, useful only for fuel. The supply of water in the streams being very variable, and at the best available for only a month or six weeks in the year, the crops are dependent on timely rains. There is an abundant supply of good well water, however, and the cost of constructing wells is not great.

Chakrabárí.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal. Noted for its manufacture of *dhutis* and *sáris* (cloth garments for men and women).

Chakráta.—Mountain cantonment in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 43′ 0″ N., long. 77° 54′ 20″ E. Founded in May 1866; first occupied in April 1869. Stands upon the range of hills overlooking the valleys of the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Tons, in the region known as Jaunsár Báwar. A small native town has gathered round the cantonment; pop. (1872), 1279. Seat of a cantonment magistrate; post office; lines for a European regiment. Reached by a mountain cart-road from Kálsi.

Chákultor.—Village, with annual fair, in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 14′ 0″ N., long. 86° 24′ 0″ E. Fair commences on the occasion of the *chhátá paráb* or umbrella festival in September, and lasts about a month; resorted to by traders from Bánkurá, Bardwán, Bírbhúm, Lohárdagá, and Hazáribágh.

Chakwál.—*Tahsíl* of Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab, occupying the central portion of the District to the north of the Salt range; situated between 32° 45′ 0″ and 33° 13′ 0″ N. lat., and 72° 31′ 0″ and 73° 17′ 0″ E. long.

Chakwál.—Municipal town in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 32° 55′ 50″ N., long. 72° 54′ 0″ E.; pop. (1868), 5767, comprising 1314 Hindus, 3028 Muhammadans, and 1425 Síkhs. Situated midway between Pind Dádan Khán and Ráwal Pindi, and 54 miles south-east of Jhelum (Jhílam). Founded by a Mhair Rájput from Jammu, whose descendants still own the surrounding land. Situated on rising ground, and naturally drained by several deep

ravines. Manufacture of shoes, of more than local reputation; also of parti-coloured cotton cloth. Extensive export trade in grain and other country produce. *Tahsíli*, police station, circuit house, dispensary, school, and distillery. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £360, or 1s. 2⅞d. per head of population (5695) within municipal limits.

Chalakere.—Municipal village in Chitaldrúg (Chitaldroog) District, Mysore; 18 miles east-north-east by road from Chitaldrúg. Lat. 14° 18′ N., long. 76° 43′ E.; pop. (1871), 1518; municipal revenue (1874-75), £11; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. The inhabitants are mostly Lingáyat traders, to whom belongs the chief building in the place, the temple of Chalakere-amma. Headquarters of the Dodderi *táluk.*

Chalakúdi. — River in the State of Cochin, Madras; rises in the Mukundapur District, and, after a tortuous course of 68 miles, empties itself into the backwater a few miles from Kránganen.

Chalan Bíl.—Lake or large marsh in Rájsháhí District, Bengal, lying between Singrá, a village on the Nattor and Bográ road, and the north bank of the Baral river in Pábná District; situated between 24° 10′ 0″ and 24° 30′ 0″ N. lat., and 89° 12′ 0″ and 89° 22′ 30″ E. long. Length from north-west to south-east, 21 miles; greatest breadth, 10 miles; total area, about 150 square miles in the rains, and 20 square miles during the dry season. It is a depressed basin, sunk below the level of the surrounding country, except at the southern extremity, from which its waters are discharged. Principal feeders, the Gur and Nandákujá, both navigable streams. In the dry season, the average depth of the area covered with water is 3 feet, but a tortuous navigable channel runs through it, with a depth of from 6 to 12 feet all the year round. The lake abounds in fish and water-fowl. The neighbouring swamps are said to be a permanent seed-bed for the dissemination of endemic cholera.

Chaláuni.—River in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Rises in a marsh in *parganá* Haráwat, enters *parganá* Nárdigar at Thalla Garhi village, and after a tortuous course falls into the Loran at Panduá. It is used chiefly for irrigation.

Chamal.—*Jhíl* or swampy lake in Sírsa District, Punjab; formed by an expansion of the river Ghaggar, and lying to the north-west of the town of Sírsa. When full, it measures about 3 miles in length by half a mile in breadth. A few Persian wheels, for irrigation purposes, are worked upon its banks, but the waters are chiefly employed for bathing and drinking.

Chámarlakota.—Town in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* SAMULCOTTAH.

Chamba.—One of the Punjab Hill States under the Government of the Punjab. A mountainous tract lying to the north of Kángra District, between 32° 10′ 30″ and 33° 13′ 0″ N. lat., and between 75° 49′ 0″ and

77° 3′ 30″ E. long.; shut in on almost every side by lofty hill ranges. Estimated area, 3216 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), chiefly Rájputs and Gadis, 140,000. Bounded on the north and north-west by the territories of Kashmír, and on the north-east and east by British Láhul and Ladákh. To the east, lies a region of snowy peaks and glaciers; and on the west and south stretch fertile valleys. Two of the five rivers of the Punjab, the Rávi and the Chenáb, water the State, flowing through forests which are important sources of timber supply for the railways and other public works in the Punjab. Chamba, the chief town of the State, is situated in lat. 32° 29′ N., and long. 76° 10′ E. The main staples are rice, millet, wheat, and barley. The exports consist principally of grain, oak, bark, and other natural products. Veins of iron, copper, and lead are known to exist. Excellent slate quarries have been discovered near the sanitarium of Dalhousie; and the soil and climate are suitable for the cultivation of tea.

The ruling family of Chamba is of Rájput descent. The present Rájá, Shám Sinh, was born about 1865, and the administration of the State is carried on during his minority by a British officer in concert with native officials. The results have been very beneficial to the State, the revenue rising in eight years from £12,000 to £17,300. By 1874-75, it had further increased to about £19,000. The Rájá ranks 15th on the list of Punjab chiefs, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns; he does not receive a return visit from the Viceroy. The military force consists of 1 field gun and 3 others, and 160 military and police. Chamba is an ancient Hindu principality, and came into British possession in 1846. A part was at first made over to the Mahárájá of Kashmír; but, by agreement in 1847, it came again entirely under the British Government, and a *sanad* was given to the Rájá, assigning the territory to him and to his male heirs, who are entitled to inherit according to Hindu law; and on failure of direct issue, to the heirs of the brothers according to seniority. The Rájá may be deposed for misgovernment. In accordance with this latter stipulation, Rájá Gopál Sinh, having by misconduct incurred the displeasure of the British Government, was in 1873 required to abdicate.

In 1854, the sanitarium of Dalhousie was made over to the British Government, and a remission of £200 made in the tribute. In 1867, a further remission of £500 per annum was allowed in compensation for land taken up for military purposes. The tribute now paid is £500 per annum.

Chambal.—River of Central India, and one of the principal tributaries of the Jumna (Jamuná); rises in Málwá, about 8 or 9 miles south-west of the military station of Mhow (Mhau), at an elevation of 2019 feet above sea level, on the crest of the water-shed which

divides the great basins of the Ganges and the Narbadá (Nerbudda). Thence it flows down the slopes of the Vindhyán range, with a general northward course, for 80 miles, receiving the waters of the Chambíla, a stream of almost equal length and volume, which takes its rise in the same range. At the town of Tál, 25 miles lower down, the river turns to the north-west, and, winding with a sinuous detour round the fortress of Nagatwára, shortly receives a second great tributary, the SIPRI, which also has its origin in the Vindhyán mountains. Passing by a tortuous course through the gorges of the Mokindura Hills, the Chambal next enters the depressed tract of Haráoti (Harowtee). Previously to reaching this rugged region, it is crossed at the Gujrát Ghát, on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to the Mokindura Pass, by a ford which becomes practicable after the 1st of November, while during the rains a ferry-boat is maintained for the convenience of traffic. Through the Mokindura uplands, the Chambal glides between almost perpendicular cliffs, expanding at its 209th mile into a picturesque lake, from whose bed it escapes over a rocky barrier, by a series of magnificent cascades, the chief of which has an estimated fall of 60 feet. At the city of Kotá, 50 miles below this picturesque scene, the Chambal is at all seasons a deep and large stream, which must be crossed by ferry, even elephants being unable to ford its shallowest part. At Paranúr, 31 miles from Kotá, the road from Agra to Mhow (Mhau) passes the river by a ford; its breadth varying from 300 yards in the rains to 30 yards in the dry season. After receiving the waters of the BANAS, its principal confluent, the Chambal assumes the dimensions of a great river; and continuing a north-easterly course, is crossed, 45 miles farther down, by a ferry on the Gwalior and Nasírábád (Nusseerabad) road. Maintaining the same direction for 55 miles, it flows under the city of Dholpur, on its left bank, and runs through a picturesque valley, bounded by fantastic hills in every variety of outline and contour. At length, after passing into the British District of Etáwah, it flows in a deep bed, surrounded by wild gorges and ravines, to join the main channel of the Jumna 40 miles below Etáwah town in lat. 26° 15′ 0″ N. and long. 79° 15′ 2″ E. Its total length, including the various windings, amounts to 570 miles; the distance in a straight line, from the source near Mhow to the junction with the Jumna, may be taken at about 330 miles. The Chambal is liable to sudden floods, and during heavy rain it discharges a greater volume of water than the Jumna itself. After the two rivers have united, the crystal current of the mountain stream may be distinguished for some distance from the muddy waters of the main river. In times of flood, communication between the two banks is often interrupted for days together, no boat being able to live in the turbulent rapids. The Chambal is identified with the Charmanwati of Sanskrit writers. The

chief ferries are at Udi, Bahráich, Sahaswán, and Páli. The average fall of the river may be estimated at 2¾ feet per mile.

Chambra Malái.—Mountain Peak in Malabar District, Madras; situated 19 miles south-east of Manantoddy, in the richest coffee tract of the Wynád. Lat. 11° 32′ N., long. 76° 7′ E. Height, 6500 feet above the sea.

Chamiáni.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; on the banks of the Lon river, 20 miles south-west of Unao town. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 2700; and Muhammadans, 409; total, 3109.

Chamomeril.—Lake in Ladákh, Kashmír, in the elevated tableland of Rupshu, lying between the valleys of the Sutlej (Satlaj) and the Indus. Lat. 32° 55′ N., long. 78° 15′ E. Elevation above sea level, 15,000 feet. Surrounded by mountains, some of which rise to a height of 5000 feet from the water's edge. Said to remain unfrozen during the summer months, in spite of its great altitude. Thornton states that though it receives several considerable streams, it has no efflux, the level being maintained by evaporation. Length from north to south, 15 miles; general breadth, about 2½ miles.

Chamordi.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár, in Káthiáwár, under the Bombay Government. It consists of one village, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £900, from which £76 is due as British tribute, and £9 to Junágarh.

Chámpa.—Chiefship in Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 120 square miles; pop. (1870), 18,666, residing in 47 villages. The chief is a Kunwár. At Chámpa, his headquarters (lat. 22° 2′ 0″ N., long. 82° 43′ 0″ E.), dwell a considerable number of weavers, whose manufactures find a ready sale in the adjoining market of Bamnídehí.

Champaháti.—Small village and station on the Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway, 15 miles south-west of Calcutta, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal.

Champanagar.—Village near Bhágalpur town, Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Contains the mausoleum of a Muhammadan saint, with an inscription bearing the date 1622-23. Residence of the *pujárís* belonging to the heretical sect of the Oswáls, of whom there is a small community at Bhágalpur.

Chámpáner.—Hill fort and village in the District of the Pánch Maháls, Guzerat, Bombay; situated on an isolated rock of great height, 250 miles north by east of Bombay, and 20 miles north-east of Baroda. Lat. 22° 31′ N., and 73° 36′ E. long. The fortifications enclose a space about three-quarters of a mile in length by three furlongs in breadth. Within this enclosure are two forts, an upper and a lower. The upper fort, which, from its natural situation, is almost impregnable, contains a temple to the goddess Káli, of much local reputation. The lower fort, also very difficult of access, possesses some curious Hindu

monuments of remote antiquity. Till late in the 15th century, the strength of this citadel preserved their territory and capital to a line of Rájput chiefs; but in 1482, Mahmúd (Begára), King of Ahmedábád, enraged at certain acts of aggression on the part of the ruler of Chámpáner, overran his territory, and laid siege to his stronghold. According to Hindu accounts, the upper fortress resisted all the efforts of the besiegers, and yielded only after a blockade of twelve years. Pleased with its situation, Mahmúd determined to make Chámpáner his capital, and accordingly he founded a new city at some distance from the former town, adorning it with large and beautiful mosques. Muhammadábád Chámpáner, as it was now called, became a place of great wealth; trade soon developed; and until about 1560, the place remained the capital of the Guzerat kings.

During the Emperor Humáyun's rapid conquest of Guzerat, the fort of Chámpáner was taken in August 1535. According to local legend, the Emperor himself, with a small band of followers, climbed up by means of iron spikes driven into the face of the rock, won an entrance, and admitted the main body of his troops. On the dismemberment of the Delhi Empire in the latter part of the 18th century, Chámpáner was seized by the Marhattás, and ultimately fell into the hands of Mahojí Sindhia. It was entirely neglected by his successor, Dáolat Ráo Sindhia, and on the 17th September 1802 surrendered without resistance to a small British detachment under the command of Colonel Woodington. It was restored in 1803 to Dáolat Ráo Sindhia by the treaty of Serji Anjangáon. Subsequently, in 1865, the town was, with the whole District of the Pánch Mahàls, transferred to the British Government. During the 18th century, Chámpáner was deserted, and its neighbourhood has relapsed into jungle. So unhealthy, indeed, has the place become, that several attempts to colonize it have failed. Though now almost without inhabitants, its magnificent hill, the fortifications, the site of the old Hindu town, and the ruins of the Musalmán capital still make Chámpáner a place of much interest.

Champáran.—A British District, occupying the north-west corner of Behar, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal; lies between 26° 16′ and 27° 30′ N., and between 83° 55′ and 85° 21′ E. long. Total area, 3531 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,440,815 souls. The administrative headquarters are at the town of Motíhárí, situated in lat. 26° 39′ N., and long. 84° 58′ E.

Champáran District is bounded north by the Independent State of Nepál; east by Muzaffarpur District of Tirhut; south by Muzaffarpur and Sáran; and west by Gorakhpur District, in the North-Western Provinces, and by a portion of Nepál territory called Ráj Botwál. The northern frontier, where not naturally formed by rivers, is marked by ditches and masonry pillars; for some distance it runs along the

may be commuted at £14,000. When the East India Company obtained possession of the *diwání* of Bengal in 1765, the area was estimated at 2546 square miles, and the revenue was £34,000. The whole was settled with the sons of Jagatkisor Sinh, the founder of the Bettiá Ráj, which still owns the larger half of the soil of the District. The remainder is held by two other great landowners, the Rájá of Rámnagar on the Nepál frontier, and that branch of the Darbhangah family known as the Madhubani Bábus. In recent times, the only historical event that has taken place in Champáran is connected with the Mutiny of 1857. The 12th regiment of Irregular Horse was then stationed at Segaulí. The commandant, Major Holmes, expressed himself confident of the loyalty of his men. But one day in July, the *sowárs* or troopers suddenly rose in mutiny, massacred their commandant, his wife and children, and all the Europeans in the cantonments. Still more recently, Champáran has been severely visited by the two famines of 1866 and 1874, both of which were caused by seasons of deficient rainfall. The District is peculiarly exposed to such calamities. It is backward in civilisation, has comparatively little trade or accumulated wealth, and lies remote from the ordinary channels of communication.

Physical Aspects.—Champáran consists of an irregular triangle, with its apex toward the south-east. Its sides are formed by the two bordering rivers, the Gandak and the Bághmatí; its base on the north is closed by the low hills on the Nepál frontier; while it is bisected throughout its entire length by the Burí or Old Gandak. The southern portion resembles in all respects the adjoining Districts of Sáran and Tirhut, and perhaps exceeds them in fertility. The land is almost uniformly level, and under continuous cultivation. Towards the north the country becomes undulating and broken, until it reaches its highest elevation in the Sumeswar range, which averages 1500 feet above sea level. This northern tract is covered with forest, from which the finest timber-trees have long ago been carried away. It also contains large grass prairies, low-lying and watered by many streams, which afford pasturage to numerous herds of cattle. Through the centre of the District runs a long chain of shallow lakes or *jhíls*, 43 in number, which cover a total area of 139 square miles. Champáran suffers from the effects of an irregulated water supply. Droughts are of common occurrence; in 1866, and again in 1874, they caused widespread scarcity. On the other hand, all parts of the District are liable to destructive inundations. The fields lying beneath the banks of the Gandak and the Bághmatí are never safe from flood; while in the north the small drainage channels or *nálás* are inadequate to carry off the rainfall of the hills, which often lays the whole country under water. The natural products of the District are chiefly found in the

summit of the Sumeswar range. On the east, the Bághmatí river constitutes a natural boundary with Tirhut for a distance of 35 miles; and similarly the Gandak is the continuous south-western boundary from Tribení Ghat to Sattar Ghát. Owing to changes in the course of the Gandak, a tract of land, consisting of 35 villages, on the farther bank of the river is now arbitrarily included within the jurisdiction of Champáran.

History.—This tract of country has no history of its own. It was separated from Sáran, and erected into an independent District, as recently as 1866; and at the present time the judge of Sáran periodically visits Motihárí to hold the Sessions. But though Champáran contains no large towns or sites that can be connected with historical events, there are local traditions and ruins of archæological interest that point back to a prehistoric past. The earliest remains show that Champáran formed an integral part of the great kingdom of Magadha, which flourished before the Christian era. At the village of Lauriyá Navangarh there are three rows of huge tumuli, which have been visited by General Cunningham. A small silver coin of a date anterior to the invasion of Alexander the Great, and a seal of black earthenware with an inscription in the Gupta character, have been found. From these and other indications, General Cunningham is induced to believe that the tumuli contain the graves of early kings, who lived between 1500 and 600 B.C. In the same neighbourhood stands a pillar, inscribed with the Buddhist edicts of Asoka. It is a single block of polished sandstone, 33 feet high, the diameter tapering from 35 inches at the base to 26 inches at the top. The capital supports a statue of a lion facing the north, and the abacus is ornamented with a row of Bráhmaní geese. A similar column, of less graceful dimensions, is to be seen at the village of Araráj. At Kesariyá is a large brick mound, supporting a solid tower or *stupa* of the same material 62 feet high and 68 feet in diameter, which is supposed by General Cunningham to have been erected to commemorate one of the acts of Buddha. Close by are the ruins of a small temple, and the head and shoulders of a colossal image of Buddha. Another class of remains bear witness to a later generation of kings, who are described in local legend as Rájput immigrants. Their capital was at Simráun, on the Nepál frontier, where there are extensive ruins of fortifications and tanks now overgrown with jungle. Tradition says that Simráun was founded by Nánuapá Deva in 1097 A.D.; and that the seventh and last of the royal line was driven northwards into Nepál by the Muhammadans in 1322.

The Musalmán *sarkár* of Champáran was considerably smaller than the present British District. In 1582, according to the rent-roll of Todar Mall, Akbar's finance minister, it was composed of three *parganás*, covering a total area of 85,711 *bíghás*, and paying a gross revenue that

may be commuted at £14,000. When the East India Company obtained possession of the *diwání* of Bengal in 1765, the area was estimated at 2546 square miles, and the revenue was £34,000. The whole was settled with the sons of Jagatkisor Sinh, the founder of the Bettiá Ráj, which still owns the larger half of the soil of the District. The remainder is held by two other great landowners, the Rájá of Rámnagar on the Nepál frontier, and that branch of the Darbhangah family known as the Madhubani Bábus. In recent times, the only historical event that has taken place in Champáran is connected with the Mutiny of 1857. The 12th regiment of Irregular Horse was then stationed at Segaulí. The commandant, Major Holmes, expressed himself confident of the loyalty of his men. But one day in July, the *sowárs* or troopers suddenly rose in mutiny, massacred their commandant, his wife and children, and all the Europeans in the cantonments. Still more recently, Champáran has been severely visited by the two famines of 1866 and 1874, both of which were caused by seasons of deficient rainfall. The District is peculiarly exposed to such calamities. It is backward in civilisation, has comparatively little trade or accumulated wealth, and lies remote from the ordinary channels of communication.

Physical Aspects.—Champáran consists of an irregular triangle, with its apex toward the south-east. Its sides are formed by the two bordering rivers, the Gandak and the Bághmatí; its base on the north is closed by the low hills on the Nepál frontier; while it is bisected throughout its entire length by the Burí or Old Gandak. The southern portion resembles in all respects the adjoining Districts of Sáran and Tirhut, and perhaps exceeds them in fertility. The land is almost uniformly level, and under continuous cultivation. Towards the north the country becomes undulating and broken, until it reaches its highest elevation in the Sumeswar range, which averages 1500 feet above sea level. This northern tract is covered with forest, from which the finest timber-trees have long ago been carried away. It also contains large grass prairies, low-lying and watered by many streams, which afford pasturage to numerous herds of cattle. Through the centre of the District runs a long chain of shallow lakes or *jhíls*, 43 in number, which cover a total area of 139 square miles. Champáran suffers from the effects of an irregulated water supply. Droughts are of common occurrence; in 1866, and again in 1874, they caused widespread scarcity. On the other hand, all parts of the District are liable to destructive inundations. The fields lying beneath the banks of the Gandak and the Bághmatí are never safe from flood; while in the north the small drainage channels or *nálás* are inadequate to carry off the rainfall of the hills, which often lays the whole country under water. The natural products of the District are chiefly found in the

hilly tract to the north. Gold is washed in the beds of the hill streams, and it is said that a considerable revenue was formerly derived from this source. Copper is also found in small quantities, and the discovery has been reported of a bed of coal. Building-stone exists, though it has not been utilized. A stratum of *kankar* or nodular limestone runs throughout the whole District; the stone is used both for metalling the roads and for burning into lime. Apart from timber and firewood, the chief jungle products are a grass called *sobítá* (used for making ropes), the *narkat* reed (used for mats), honey and bees-wax, lac, long pepper, and various medicinal plants. The forests of Rámnagar, which have been leased by the Rájá to a European capitalist, yield an annual revenue of about £1000. The total value of all the fisheries in the District is insignificant.

People.—Several early enumerations of the inhabitants exist, but not one of them can be accepted as accurate. The highest estimate, in 1869, gave a total of 932,322 souls. The regular Census of 1872, conducted through the agency of the village *patwáris* or accountants, proved that all previous figures were far below the mark. The result disclosed a total population of 1,440,815 persons, dwelling in 2299 villages and in 242,228 houses, showing an average of 408 persons per village and 5·9 per house. The area of the District is 3531 square miles, and the average density of population, 408 per square mile. This density, however, varies from 686 in the *thána* or police circle of Dháká Rámchandra to 124 in the northern *thána* of Bagahá. Classified according to age, there are 737,529 males and 703,286 females; proportion of males, 51·2. Champáran is thus the only District of Behar in which the males preponderate. Classified according to age, there are—under 12 years, 270,655 boys and 236,358 girls; total, 507,013, or 35·2 per cent. of the total population. The total number of persons afflicted with certain specified infirmities is 5389, or ·374 of the population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that 342,968 adult males, or 73 per cent., are described as connected with agriculture. The ethnical division of the people shows—85 Europeans and 8 Eurasians; 1285 Nepálís; 31,203 aborigines; 221,462 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 974,451 Hindus, subdivided according to caste; 13,084 Hindus not recognising caste; 199,237 Muhammadans. Among the aborigines are included 21,450 Thárus, who with the Nepálís are almost entirely confined to the two frontier *thánás* of Lauriyá and Bagahá. The Thárus are a race of Indo-Chinese origin, inhabiting the malarious *tarái* along the foot of the Himálayas. They are honest and industrious people, who utilize the water of the hill streams for their scanty patches of rice cultivation. Another tribe almost peculiar to Champáran is the Maghya Doms, whose numbers are not given separately in the Census Report, but probably do not

exceed 800 souls. They are a nomad tribe, with inveterate habits of thieving; and it has been proposed to break up their organization by special police measures. Of those classed as semi-Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous are the Chamárs, 89,061, and the Dosádhs, 69,958. The superior castes of Hindus are well represented. The Bráhmans, who are specially encouraged to settle on the Bettiá estate, number 65,315; the Rájputs, 69,578; the Bábhans or military Bráhmans, to which caste the Rájá of Bettiá himself belongs, 49,288; the Goálás or herdsmen, who bear a bad reputation, 133,413. The two chief cultivating castes are the Koerís, 82,074, and the Kurmís, 77,641. The artisan castes number collectively 141,140, and the fishing and boating castes, 62,757. The Nuniyás, 35,102 in number, are by hereditary occupation makers of saltpetre, but they also supply the best labourers and spademen to be found in the District. The religious classification of the people shows—Hindus, as loosely grouped together for religious purposes, 1,240,264, or 86·1 per cent.; Muhammadans, 199,237, or 13·8 per cent.; Christians, 1307, or 1 per cent.; 'others,' 7. There are no Buddhists or Jains, and the Bráhma Sámaj has but few followers. Among the Hindus are comprised 6063 Atiths, a peculiar sect of Siva-worshippers, and 4190 Vaishnavs. Many of the Musalmáns are immigrants from Patná and the North-Western Provinces. The Christians include 1214 native converts, under the charge of two Roman Catholic missions at Bettiá and Chuhárí. The former was founded in 1746 by an Italian priest, who had been invited into the District by the Rájá of Bettiá. The Chuhárí mission was established in 1770 by three priests who had been expelled from Nepál.

The population of Champáran is entirely rural. The villages are somewhat larger than in the rest of Behar, but this is no indication of a tendency towards urban life. The largest town is BETTIA, with a population of 19,708. MOTIHARI, the civil station, has 8266 inhabitants. SEGAULI, about 15 miles from Motíhárí, the scene of the Mutiny of 1857, is still occupied by a regiment of native cavalry. Large fairs for religious objects and for trade are held annually at BETTIA, SITAKUND, ARARAJ, and TRIBENI GHAT. The chief centres of trade are Bettiá and Bagahá, on the Gandak. The primitive organization of village officials is represented at the present day by the *jéth rayat* or head-man and the *patwárí* or accountant. Both these, however, have now become rather servants of the *zamíndár* than officials of the community.

Agriculture.—The crops in Champáran are divided into three harvests, named after the season of the year in which they are reaped—(1) the *bhadaí* or autumn crop; (2) the *aghání* or autumn crop; (3) the *rabí* or spring crop. The total cultivated area is pretty equally distributed between the three. Rice may be either a *bhadaí* or an *aghání* crop, but

more usually the latter. In the former case it is grown on comparatively high lands; in the latter case in low-lying fields. The cultivation of rice is chiefly confined to the tract lying north of the Little Gandak river, and it has been estimated that only about one-third of the population habitually use rice as their daily food. In the remainder of the District the food supply is drawn from the *bhadaí* and *rabí* crops, which include barley, wheat, Indian corn, and various millets and pulses. The miscellaneous crops not grown for food are indigo, oil-seeds, opium, tobacco, and sugar-cane. In Champáran, indigo is generally grown under the *asámiwár* system; in accordance with which the planter takes a lease of an entire village from the *zamíndár*, and the cultivators are required to plant indigo on receiving an advance. There are altogether 12 head factories in the District, with 24 outworks, cultivating about 60,000 acres. In 1872, which was an average season, the out-turn was about 8000 cwts., valued at £264,000. As elsewhere throughout Behar, opium is cultivated on a system of advances made by the Government. In 1872-73, the total area under opium was about 59,000 acres, and the out-turn about 6000 cwts. The cultivation of sugar-cane is said to have been introduced from Gorakhpur in the beginning of the present century. Manure, in the shape of cow-dung and *sít* or indigo refuse, is used for special crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, opium, and indigo. Irrigation is commonly practised in the north of the District, especially by the Thárus, who lead the water on to their fields from the hill streams by artificial channels sometimes several miles in length. In the south of the District wells are occasionally dug for purposes of irrigation. Tanks are extremely rare. An elaborate scheme for utilizing the destructive flood waters of the Gandak has long been under the consideration of Government. Almost the entire soil of Champáran is in the hands of three large landowners, who usually farm out their estates on short leases to middlemen, and the rent is frequently paid in kind. Though rents are not high, as compared with the neighbouring Districts, this system is unfavourable to the independence of the cultivators, who are described as being in poor circumstances. The Koerís and Kurmís are skilled agriculturists, and capable of managing large holdings; higher rents are taken from them than from the favoured castes of Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Bábhans. The average rent of land on which food crops are raised varies from 3s. to 6s. per acre. A large extent of waste land is still available for tillage in the central and north-western parts of the District.

Natural Calamities. — Champáran is exceptionally exposed to natural calamities. The famines of 1866 and 1874, caused by drought, produced great and general distress in this District. In each case, also, the end of the drought was attended by destructive floods. The

calamity of drought can only be remedied by encouraging facilities for importation, which are at present in a very backward state. The mischief caused by floods, though equally overwhelming, is not so extensive in its area. It is hoped that the embankment now in course of construction along the left bank of the Gandak will effectually protect the low-lying fields. Famine rates are reached when rice sells in the beginning of the year at 12s. per cwt. But it must be recollected that the majority of the people do not eat rice, but depend upon barley and inferior grains.

Industrial.—There are altogether 26 lines of road in Champáran, with an aggregate length of 438 miles. In the year 1874-75, a total sum of £8252 was expended by the District Road Committee. External commerce is chiefly conducted by the rivers, which lend themselves more easily to export than to import. There is no railroad in the District, and no railway station nearer than Patná. The indigenous manufactures are confined to the weaving of coarse cotton cloth and blankets, and the making of pottery. The preparation of indigo is almost entirely conducted by European capital and under European supervision. The industry of sugar-refining has been introduced from the neighbouring District of Gorakhpur within the present century. Saliferous earth is found in all parts of the District; and from this a special caste, called Nuniyás, earn a scanty livelihood by extracting saltpetre and other saline substances, including a considerable quantity of untaxed salt. Apart from its local trade in agricultural products, Champáran possesses commercial importance as occupying the high-road between Patná and Nepál. Both the local and through traffic of the District, so far as it did not escape registration, is included in the following totals, which refer to the year 1876-77:—Exports, £543,000, chiefly indigo £245,000, oil-seeds £120,000, timber £38,000, sugar £17,000, and cotton goods £30,000, which last are despatched northwards into Nepál; imports, £139,000, chiefly salt £39,000, piece-goods £13,000, and food grains £20,000, received from Nepál. The principal river marts are Bettiá, Gobindganj, Bagahá, Barharwá, Pákrí, and Mánpur. The greater portion of the trade with Nepál crosses the frontier at Katkanwá.

Administration.—Champáran was separated from Sáran, and erected into an independent District, in 1866. In 1870-71, the revenue amounted to £82,212, of which £50,030 was derived from the land; the expenditure was £57,779, including £23,749 on account of military payments, thus leaving a net surplus of £24,520. In 1872, the regular police consisted of a force of 333 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £6293. In addition, there was a municipal police of 39 men, costing £263, and a village watch of 3664 men, who received emoluments from the landowners to the estimated value of £5905. The total force,

therefore, for the protection of person and property numbered 4036 officers and men, being 1 man to every ·87 square mile or to every 357 persons in the population. The aggregate cost was £12,464, equal to an average of £3, 10s. 7d. per square mile and 2d. per head of population. In the same year, a total number of 1738 persons were put upon their trial for various criminal offences; of whom 1005, or 58 per cent., were convicted, being 1 person convicted of an offence of some kind to every 1433 of the population. The great majority of these offences were of a petty character. There is a jail at the civil station of Motíhárí, with a subordinate lock-up at Bettiá. In the year 1870, the daily average number of prisoners was 210, being 1 prisoner to every 6861 of the population; the average cost was £4, 4s. 10d. Jail manufactures showed a loss of £41. The Motíhárí jail has a bad reputation for its excessive unhealthiness. During the twelve years ending 1874, the total number of deaths among the prisoners was 257, of which 52 were due to cholera; the average death-rate was 90·9 per thousand.

Education in this remote District has always been in a backward condition. It is only since the introduction of Sir G. Campbell's reforms, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended to the village schools or *páthsálás*, that primary instruction has had any existence in Champáran. In 1870-71, there were only 2 schools in the District, attended by 51 pupils. In 1872-73, after the reforms above mentioned had come into operation, the number of schools increased to 78, and the number of pupils to 1222. The total cost in that year was £293, of which Government contributed £153, or more than one-half. By the 31st March 1875, the schools had further increased to 182, and the pupils to 3805, showing 1 school to every 19·4 square miles and 2·6 pupils to every thousand inhabitants.

For administrative purposes, Champáran District is divided into 2 Subdivisions and into 10 *thánás* or police circles. There are 4 *parganás* or fiscal divisions; but one of these, *parganá* Majhawá, which is co-extensive with the Bettiá Ráj, covers an area of 1½ million acres, and for fiscal purposes is divided into 25 *tappás* or minor revenue areas. In 1869, there were 4 magisterial and also 4 civil courts open, and 2 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District. The two towns of Motíhárí and Bettiá, with an aggregate population of 27,974 souls, had in 1872 a total municipal income of £565; average rate of taxation, 5¼d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Champáran is described as comparatively cool and dry. The rainy season lasts from June to September. The hottest month of the year is May, at which time hot winds from the west frequently prevail. The cold weather lasts from November to March. The nights are then cold and bracing, and

light winds blow. During the two years 1871 and 1872 the average annual rainfall was 57·10 inches.

Endemic diseases of a malarious origin prevail, especially in the north of the District. In Rámnagar, intermittent fever assumes its most fatal type. Goitre, with its attendant cretinism, is common. Cholera is rarely absent from some part of the District, and outbreaks of small-pox are not infrequent. The registration returns from selected areas for 1873 show a death-rate of 26·09 per thousand in the urban area, co-extensive with the two towns of Motíhárí and Bettiá; and 51·71 per thousand in the rural area. There are 4 charitable dispensaries in the District.

Champáran.—Headquarters Subdivision of District of same name, Bengal. Area, 1470 square miles, with 1150 villages and 135,620 houses. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 750,156; Muhammadans, 115,411; Christians, 80; 'others,' 7; total, 865,654, viz. 441,857 males and 423,797 females. Average density of population, 589 per square mile; houses per square mile, 92; persons per village, 753; persons per house, 6·4. The Subdivision consists of the police circles (*thánás*) of Motíhárí, Adápur, Dhákú Rámchandra, Kesariyá, Madhubar, and Gobindganj. In 1869 it contained 3 magisterial and revenue courts, with a regular police force 300 strong, and 1800 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen. Total cost of Subdivisional administration, £10,075.

Champdání.—Small village in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Húglí river, near Baidyabátí. In former times, notorious for piracies and murders.

Chámrájnagar.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore. Area, 208 square miles; pop. (1871), 93,611; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £12,222, or 2s. 1d. per cultivated acre. There is much black cotton soil, growing wheat, etc.; the chief industry is silk-weaving.

Chámrájnagar.—Municipal town in Mysore District, Mysore, and headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name; 36 miles south-east from Mysore town. Lat. 11° 56′ 15″ N., long. 77° E.; pop. (1871), 4893, of whom 23 are Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £90; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. Original name (Arkotar) changed by the late Mahárájá of Mysore in 1818, in honour of his father Chámráj Wodeyár, who was born here. In 1825, the Mahárájá erected a large temple to Chámrájeswara, which he endowed with *sarvamányam* villages, yielding £1700 a year, and placed in charge of an *amíldár* with 157 subordinates. He also built a palace. Two miles east are the ruins of an ancient city, locally known as Manipur.

Chamráuli.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 7 miles east of Unao town. Founded by the Dikhit Kshattriyás, and the seat of their power for many generations. Still one of the chief Dikhit villages.

Pop. (1869), Hindus, 3287, of whom 1152 are Kshattriyás; Muhammadans, 178; total, 3465. Government school.

Chamundibetta (the hill of Chamundi, a name for Káli, the consort of Siva).—Precipitous hill in Mysore District, Mysore; 2 miles south-east of the fort of Mysore, 3489 feet above sea level. Lat. 12° 17′ N., long. 76° 44′ E. A flight of stone steps leads to the summit, on which is a temple of Chamundi, repaired by the late Mahárájá. Human sacrifices were offered here until the time of Haidar Alí. Two-thirds of the way up is a colossal figure of Nandi, the sacred bull of Siva, hewn out of the solid rock. The figure is in a recumbent attitude, 16 feet high, and very correctly represented. It was carved by order of Dodda Deva Rájá, who ascended the throne of Mysore in 1659.

Chanár.—*Tahsíl* of Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the Ganges, and consisting in large part of the last outlying terraces which descend from the Vindhyán range. Area, 558 square miles, of which 244 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 165,560; land revenue, £28,665; total revenue, £30,320; rental paid by cultivators, £59,042; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7¼d.

Chanár. — Municipality and ancient town in Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 25° 7′ 30″ N., and long. 82° 55′ 1″ E., on the south bank of the Ganges, at the point where the river takes its great bend northward towards Benares. Distant from Benares 26 miles south-west, from Mírzápur 20 miles east. Pop. (1872), 10,154, comprising 7289 Hindus, 2462 Musalmáns, and 403 Europeans; the last-named body consisting for the most part of military pensioners. Ancient fort, garrisoned by a company of the European regiment at Allahábád, and used as a place of confinement for political prisoners. Station on East Indian Railway main line. Extensive quarries of excellent building-stone, largely exported for ornamental architecture. Local centre for trade in grain and country produce. Bharti Náth, a king of Ujain, and younger brother of Vikramáditya, became a religious devotee at Chanár. Prithwi Rájá also resided in the fortress; and a mutilated slab over the gateway commemorates its ransom from the hands of a Musalmán invader. It passed through many reverses under the Pathán and Mughal dynasties (*see* MIRZAPUR DISTRICT), and fell into the hands of Rájá Balwant Sinh of Benares about 1750. The fort was attacked by the British under Major Munro in 1763 without success; but it came into our possession after the battle of Buxar, in the following year. Rájá Cháit Sinh fled in 1781 from Benares to Chanár, where he remained for a month, and then escaped to Gwalior. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £839; from taxes, £531, or 10⅜d. per head of population (12,289) within municipal limits. Telegraph office and dispensary.

Chanasam.—Town in the territory o the Gáekwár of Baroda. Lat. 23° 43′ 0″ N., and long. 72° 14′ 55″ E.; pop. (1872), 7019.

Chánchrá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; about a mile south of Jessor town, and the residence of the Rájás of Chánchrá or Jessor. Lat. 23° 9′ 0″ N., long. 89° 14′ 45″ E. The Chánchrá family traces its origin to one Bhabeswar Rái, a soldier in Khán-i-Azam's army, who received a grant of 4 *parganás* out of the territories conquered from Pratápáditya (*vide* JESSOR DISTRICT). He died in 1588 A.D., and his successors added considerably to the original domain. His grandson, Manohar Rái (1649-1705 A.D.), is looked upon as the principal founder of the family; and at his death, the estate was by far the largest in the neighbourhood. His second successor divided the family property into two parts, retaining a three-fourths share, known as the Yusafpur estate, for himself, and making over the one-fourth, known as the Sayyidpur estate, to a brother, who some years afterwards died without heirs. At the time of the Permanent Settlement (1793), the Yusafpur estate was in the hands of Srikánt Rái, who fell into arrears of land revenue. His property was sold, *parganá* after *parganá*, and finally he became a pensioner on the bounty of Government. His son, Bánikant Rái, succeeded by a suit in regaining a portion of the ancestral estates, gave up his pension, and became again a landholder. On his death, a long minority occurred, during which the estate was under the management of the Court of Wards, and greatly increased in value. The present possessor, Baradákánt Rái, received a grant in 1823 of one of the *parganás* confiscated in the time of his predecessors. The title of Rájá Bahádur has also been bestowed on him, in recognition of his position, and for services rendered during the Mutiny.

Chánda.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 19° 31′ and 20° 53′ N. lat., and between 78° 52′ and 80° 59′ E. long. It forms an irregular triangle, with its northern base resting on the Wardha, Nágpur, and Bhandára Districts; its western side bounded by the Wardha river, and its south-eastern by the Bastár State and Ráipur District. Population in 1872, 534,431; area, 9700 square miles. The administrative headquarters of the District are at CHANDA, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—Except in the low-lying region in the extreme west, along the Wardha river, Chánda is thickly dotted with hills, sometimes rising isolated from the plain, sometimes in short spurs or ridges, all running towards the south. East of the Wáinganga river, the hills increase in height, and form a broad tableland, at its highest point about 2000 feet above the sea. The WAINGANGA flows through the centre of the District from north to south, till it meets the Wardha at Seoni, where their united streams form the PRANHITA. The eastern regions of Chánda are drained by the headwaters of the Mahánadi,

which flows in a north-easterly direction, and by the Indrávati. Each of these rivers receives the waters of many large streams, which in their turn are fed by countless rivulets from the hills. In many places the streams have been formed into lakes, by throwing up dams across the sloping lands which they intersect. Such artificial lakes are found in greatest number in the Garhborí and Brahmapuri *parganás;* as many as 37 can be seen at once from the heights of Perzagarh. To the abundance of its waters Chánda owes the luxuriance of its forests, which everywhere fringe the cultivated lands. Along the eastern frontier the trees attain their finest growth, specially in Ahíri, where teak of large size abound. To the lover of scenery and the sportsman, Chánda offers singular attractions. The combinations of stream and lake, hill and forest, form a variety of scenes of picturesque beauty; while game of every description swarms in the woods and on the waters.

History. — For several centuries before the Marhattá dominion, Chánda enjoyed substantial independence from foreign rule, notwithstanding the nominal allegiance of its Gond princes to the Delhi throne. Under the Gond dynasty, the inhabitants of Chánda were elevated from a savage tribe into an orderly and contented people; large tracts of country were reclaimed from the forest, and engineering works of no mean skill were planned and successfully executed. At what date these princes adopted the Hindu faith cannot be determined; but it was not until the reign of Bír Sháh, in the middle of the 17th century, that the yearly sacrifice of cows to Pharsa Pen, the great Gond deity, was entirely abolished. With Nílkánt Sháh, the Gond line came to an end. That cruel and tyrannical prince made himself hateful to all classes of his subjects; and when, in 1749 A.D., the Marhattás under Raghojí Bhonslá blockaded Chánda, the city was surrendered without a battle by the treachery of the courtiers. At first Raghojí contented himself with a tribute of two-thirds of the revenues of the kingdom; but two years later, he took entire possession of Chánda, and Nílkánt Sháh ended his days in confinement. From this time, Chánda became a province of the Bhonslá family. The loss of its independence marks the close of its prosperity. Contested successions among the Marhattá rulers afforded an opportunity for an unsuccessful Gond rising in 1773 under the son of Nílkánt Sháh, who, after being defeated and imprisoned, was in 1788 pensioned off by the Marhattás on £60 a year. The Marhattá succession was then adjusted by one claimant slaying the other with his own hand. Chánda next suffered from the Pindárís. About 1800 A.D., these organized banditti spread over the District, till few villages had escaped pillage, and hundreds were left wholly desolate. The incursions of the Pindárís incited to action the predatory castes throughout the country, and

between 1802 and 1822, one-half the population is said to have been killed off. Even in the walled city of Chánda, the number of houses diminished in nearly this proportion. The death of the Marhattá Rájá in 1816 left the succession to his only son, Parsojí. Blind, lame, and paralyzed, and with an intellect as feeble as his body, this unhappy prince, after being used as a tool in the hands of contending court factions, was found dead in his bed—strangled, as was afterwards discovered, by the secret orders of his cousin, Apá Sáhib, who, as next of kin, now became Rájá of Nágpur. After various acts of treachery and hostility, Apá Sáhib surrendered to the British, and was reinstated by them, but faithlessly allied himself with the Peshwá against us. In 1818, he was seized by our Resident at Nágpur, on the eve of his throwing himself into Chánda. His ally, the Peshwá Bájí Ráo, pushed on to meet him within 10 miles of Chánda, when his progress was also checked by a British force; and on the 17th April 1818, he was routed at Pandarkankrá, west of the Wardha river. The English army then laid siege to Chánda, and on the 2d May carried it by storm in spite of the desperate resistance of the garrison. The *kilúdár* (commandant) himself fell fighting gallantly at the head of his soldiers; and the conquerors, admiring his courage, spared his house amid the sack of the town. The faithless Apá Sáhib was deposed by the British Government; and the administration of the country was conducted by the Resident, acting in the name and during the minority of the new Rájá, Raghojí, with British officers in charge of each District. Under their administration, the disaffected Gonds returned to habits of order, plundering was checked, assessments were reduced, irrigation works were restored, and education was encouraged. But when, in 1830, the government was made over to the Rájá, his narrow and grinding policy checked the progress which had begun, and plundering again prevailed through the country. In 1853 A.D., Raghojí III. died without an heir, and Chánda, with the rest of the Nágpur Province, was incorporated into the British Empire, the administration being conducted by a Commission under the supreme Government. During the Mutiny, the wild nature of the country, the innate predatory habits of the Gonds, and the proximity of the Haidarábád territory, caused great anxiety; but it was not till March 1858 that order was disturbed. Bábu Ráo, a petty chief of Monampallí in the Ahíri *zamíndárí*, then began to plunder the Rájgarh *parganá*. He was soon joined by Vyankat Ráo, *zamíndár* of Arpallí and Ghot; and the two leaders, collecting a band of Rohillás and Gonds, openly declared rebellion. On the night of the 29th April, Messrs. Gartland, Hall, and Peter, telegraph employés, were attacked by a party of the rebels near Chunchgundí, on the Pránhita river. Messrs. Gartland and Hall were killed, but Mr. Peter contrived to escape, and joined Captain Crichton, then Deputy Commissioner. Afterwards, disguised as a native,

Mr. Peter succeeded in delivering to a leading lady *zamíndár*, Lakshmí Bái, a letter from Captain Crichton; and by her exertions Bábu Ráo was captured. He suffered death at Chánda, on the 21st October 1858. Vyankat Ráo escaped to Bastár; but in April 1860 he was arrested by the Rájá of that Dependency, and handed over to the British authorities, by whom he was sentenced to transportation for life, with forfeiture of all his property.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Chánda at 537,295; the latest estimate, in 1877, indicates a total of 561,691. The regular Census of 1872 showed a population of 534,431 persons, residing in an area of 9700 square miles, and occupying 2392 villages or townships and 108,258 houses; persons per square mile, 55·10; villages per square mile, 0·25; houses per square mile, 11·16; persons per village, 223·42; persons per house, 4·94. Classified according to sex, the number of males was 267,601; and of females, 266,830. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, 91,438 in 1872; the remainder consisting of Kandhs, Kúrkús, Máriás, Báigas, etc. Among Hindus, the Bráhmans in 1872 numbered 5963; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Kunbis (81,902), Mánas (24,937), Málís (28,995), Telís (25,537), and other cultivating or inferior castes.

There are only two towns in Chánda District with a population exceeding 5000—viz., CHANDA, the District capital, pop. (1872), 17,228; and ARMORI, 5271. Townships with 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 58; with from 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 681; villages with fewer than 200 inhabitants, 1651. The only municipalities are Chánda and Warora, with a total population of 21,029.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 9700 square miles, only 1030 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste 5163 are returned as cultivable. Less than a fourth of the cultivated land is irrigated—entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 9d. per acre of cultivated land, or 2d. on the cultivable land. The principal crops consist of rice and sugar-cane; excellent cotton, *joár*, oil-seeds, wheat, gram, and pulses are also grown, and the Chánda *pán* gardens are famous throughout the Province. Horned cattle, of indifferent quality, are bred in great numbers. Large flocks of sheep abound, principally kept for their wool and manure. The Godávari breed, found in the extreme south, have coats of hair rather than wool. Goats and poultry, both good of their kind, are plentiful.

The Census of 1872 showed a total of 3000 landed proprietors; tenants numbered about 30,000, of whom 5638 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 23,772 were tenants-at-will. Average rent per acre, in 1877, of land suited for rice, 1s. 4d.; for sugar-cane, 4s. 4d.; for wheat or cotton, 10d.; for oil-seeds or inferior grain, 11d.; for

fibres, 9½d.; for tobacco, 8d. Average produce of land per acre, in lbs.—rice, 200; *gúr* or unrefined sugar, 560; wheat, 720; inferior grain, 240; cotton, 40; oil-seeds, 354; tobacco, 100. Average price of produce per cwt.—rice, 7s. 6d.; *gúr*, 13s. 8d.; wheat, 4s. 9d.; gram, 4s. 1d.; cotton, £2, 3s. 8d.; linseed, 6s. 10d.; *joár*, 4s. Average wages per diem—skilled labour, 1s.; unskilled, 3d.

Natural Calamities.—In September 1797, the Virái river rose to an extraordinary height, flooding the entire city of Chánda, and submerging numerous dwellings.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is mainly carried on by means of annual fairs, the most important of which are held at Chánda in April, and at Bhándak in February. The chief manufacture consists of the weaving of fine and coarse cotton cloths, which once found their way as far as Arabia, and are still largely exported to Western India. Large numbers of *tasar* silkworms are bred in the forests, and the wound silk thence obtained forms an important item of export. Considerable quantities of excellent iron are smelted, both for home and foreign use; and from the resources of Chánda in coal, cotton, and iron, and the abundance of labour, the rise of great manufacturing industries may be confidently anticipated as soon as further means of transit are opened up. Already the important colliery of Warora was producing, in 1877, coal at the rate of 3500 tons per month, and giving employment to 350 men. The coal sells, when screened, for 10s. a ton, and has proved sufficiently good for locomotive fuel on the railways.

Communications in 1877:—By the Wáinganga and Wardha rivers, at certain seasons, 194 miles; made roads, second-class, 42 miles; railroads, 17 miles, being the coal branch-line from Warora to Wardha, where it joins the Great Indian Peninsular Railway system.

There is a first-class dispensary in the city of Chánda, with branch dispensaries at Armori, Brahmapuri, and Warora.

Administration.—In 1861, Chánda was formed into a separate British District. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1876-77, imperial and local, £44,395, of which the land revenue yielded £24,529. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £13,786. Number of civil and revenue judges, 6; of magistrates, 12. Maximum distance of any village from the nearest court, 130 miles; average distance, 20 miles. Number of police, 540, costing £7893; being 1 policeman to about every 18 square miles and every 1040 persons. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 64, of whom 9 were females; the cost of the jails in that year was £510. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 55, attended by 3465 pupils.

Of the two municipalities in 1876-77, Chánda, with a population of

17,228, returned an income of £1525, of which £1103 was derived from taxation; Warora, with a population of 3801, returned an income of £51, of which £463 was derived from taxation. In both cases the octroi forms the main source of revenue. Average rate of municipal taxation per head of the population—in Chánda, 1s. 3⅜d.; in Warora, 2s. 5d.

Medical Aspects.—The rainy season sets in about the middle of June, and lasts till the end of September. Showers, on which the dry crops and sugar-cane are dependent, are also expected in November and December. Average annual rainfall, 47·14 inches. Temperature in the shade at the civil station during the year 1876—May, highest reading 111° F., lowest reading 79°; July, highest reading 94°, lowest 71°; December, highest 87°, lowest 44° F.

From the middle of September to the end of November, malarious fever prevails throughout the District, exposure to the night air being especially dangerous. Cholera frequently occurs, and dysentery, diarrhœa, and small-pox carry off large numbers; but it may be hoped that the increased attention paid to vaccination will mitigate the last-mentioned scourge. In 1876, the death-rate per 1000 of the population was returned at 34·06; the average of the previous five years being estimated at 23·22. The high rate of 1876 is principally due to the prevalence of cholera.

Chánda.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Chánda District, Central Provinces. Lat. 19° 56′ 30″ N., long. 79° 20′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 16,233 (1877) within municipal limits, 17,228, chiefly Marhattás and Telingas, the latter including most of the tradesmen and artisans. Principal products—*pán* leaves, sugar-cane, and vegetables, fine and coarse cotton cloths, silk fabrics, brass utensils, leather slippers, and bamboo work. Chánda carries on a considerable trade, especially at the great fair, which begins in April and lasts three weeks. The town is surrounded by a continuous wall of cut stone, 5½ miles in circuit, crowned with battlements and having a crenelated parapet and broad rampart. There are 4 gates and 5 wickets. Inside the walls are detached villages and cultivated fields, and without lie the suburbs; total number of houses (1870), 4326. Chánda stands amid charming scenery. Dense forest stretches to the north and east; on the south rise the blue ranges of Mánikdrúg; while westward opens a cultivated rolling country, with distant hills. Set in this picture, sweep the long lines of the ramparts now seen, now lost, among great groves of ancient trees. In front glitters the broad expanse of the Ramála tank; while the Jharpat and Viraí flow on either side. The citadel, now enclosing the jail, contains a large well with an underground passage, leading no one knows whither. The tombs of the Gond kings, the Achaleswar, Mahá Káli, and Murlídhar temples, with the massive monoliths at Lálpet, form the

most striking monuments in the place. The public buildings consist of—the *kotwálí* with garden in front, the *zilá* schoolhouse, the dispensary, the travellers' bungalow, and the *sarái*. Near the Jatpurá gate is the Victoria market; and a public park extends between the city and the civil station, which lies to the north of the city, with the military cantonment at the west end, and the civil lines in the centre and east. This park contains the District court-house, the headquarters police station-house, a Christian cemetery, buildings for a regiment of Native infantry, and post office. Municipal revenue (1876–77), £1525; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Chánda.—*Parganá* of Sultánpur District, Oudh, lying between *parganá* Patti of Partábgarh District, on the north, and *parganá* Aldemau on the south. Area, 130 square miles, of which 73 are cultivated; Government land revenue, £10,023. The villages, which number 290, are nearly all in the possession of Bachgoti Rájputs; the Rájkumárs, one branch of that clan, owning 114; and the Rájwárs, another branch, 138. About half the *parganá*, or 146 villages, is held in *tálukdárí*, and 144 villages in *zamíndárí* tenure. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 69,091; Muhammadans, 3502; total, 72,593, viz. 38,025 males and 34,568 females: average density of population, 558 per square mile. Among high castes, the most numerous are Bráhmans (13,717), and Kshattriyás (7688); among low castes, Chamárs (11,783), and Ahírs (9516). The road from Jaunpur to Lucknow runs through the *parganá*.

Chandan.—River rising in the hills near Deogarh, in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal. It flows a northerly course, and is fed by numerous tributaries. As it approaches the Ganges, it throws off branches to the east and west; and at its point of junction with the great river, near Bhágalpur town, its main channel is reduced to insignificant dimensions. Greatest width, 1500 feet from bank to bank. Except in the rains, its channel is a mere bed of coarse sand; but it is liable to sudden and violent inundations, which do great damage to the surrounding country. Embankments are constructed on both sides.

Chandarnagar (popularly *Chundernagore*, correctly *Chandan-nagar*—'City of Sandalwood').—French settlement, within the boundaries of Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, a short distance below Chinsurah. Lat. 22° 51′ 40″ N., long. 88° 24′ 50″ E. Chandarnagar, occupied by the French in 1673, was acquired in 1688, and rose to importance in the time of Dupleix, during whose administration (1731-41) more than 2000 brick houses were erected, and a considerable maritime trade was developed. In 1757, it was bombarded by Admiral Watson, and captured; the fortifications and houses were afterwards demolished. On peace being established, the town was restored to the French in 1763. When hostilities broke out in 1794, it

was again seized by the English; restored by treaty, 1802; retaken the same year; and held by them till the Peace of 1815 definitively made it over to the French, 4th December 1816. All the former grandeur of Chandarnagar has now passed away, and at present it is a quiet suburban town, with but little external trade. It continues, however, the official seat of a French sub-governor, with a few soldiers. The area of Chandarnagar (town and settlement) is only 3 square miles; pop. (1877), 22,539; including 226 Europeans, 77 'mixed,' and 22,236 natives, chiefly Hindus. The railway station, on the East Indian Railway, is just outside French territory, 22 miles from Calcutta (Howrah).

Chandauli.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Benares District, North-Western Provinces, including the whole portion of the District on the right bank of the Ganges. Traversed by the East Indian Railway, with a branch from Mughal Sarai to the bank opposite Benares. Area, 418 square miles, of which 335 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 225,361; land revenue, £28,634; total Government revenue, £31,597; rental paid by cultivators, £63,859; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 1⅝d. per acre.

Chandausi.—Municipal town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 27′ 5″ N., long. 78° 49′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 23,686, including 17,832 Hindus and 5849 Muhammadans; area, 234 acres. Lies on the Budáun road, 28 miles south of Moradábád, and 4 miles west of the Sot river. Station on Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, with junction for Alígarh branch. Principal mart for surrounding parts of Rohilkhand; large export trade in sugar. Dispensary, and telegraph office. Extensive quarries of *kankar* or nodular limestone. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £4049; from taxes, £1236, or 1s. 0⅝d. per head of population (23,513) within municipal limits.

Chándbálí.—River port on the left bank of the Baitaraní river, Balasor District, Orissa. Lat. 20° 46′ 30″ N., long. 86° 47′ 56″ E. This place has risen to importance only within the last few years, and is now the centre of a rapidly growing trade. Three steamers ply regularly between Calcutta and Chándbálí, and a fourth between Calcutta and Mahurigáon, a sister port on the opposite side of the river. Value of imports, 1873-74, £112,143, exports £61,436; 1874-75, imports £200,858, exports £139,554. The trade in commodities is supplemented by a passenger traffic, which in 1874-75 amounted to 32,000 persons either way. A portion of these passengers are pilgrims on their way to and from the shrine of Jagannáth—mostly up-country people of the middle class, who can afford to pay their fare by rail to Calcutta, and by steamer to Orissa. There is also a strictly local passenger traffic of Uriyás, who resort to Calcutta in considerable numbers in search of domestic service.

Chánderi.—In Sindhia's territory, Gwalior, Central India; at present an insignificant place, but once a fortified town of importance and splen-

dour. Lat. 24° 42′ 0″ N., long. 78° 11′ 0″ E. Distant 105 miles south of Gwalior, 170 south of Agra, and 280 south of Delhi. According to the *Ain-i-Akbarí*, it contained '14,000 stone houses, 384 markets, 360 caravanserais, and 12,000 mosques.' The fort, surrounded by a sandstone rampart and guarded by circular towers, is situated on a high hill. It was a place of great strength, and at one time sustained a siege of eight months. The ruins which remain show that some of the buildings of the ancient city must have been of considerable size and magnificence. Among other memorials of the former greatness of Chánderi, a pass cut through a solid rock, 100 feet high, is conspicuous. The rock bears an inscription, stating that the lofty gate of Gumti and Kerauli, near the tank, was built in 1301 by Ghiás-ud-dín, Emperor of Delhi.

Chándisthán.—Shrine in Vikrámchándi village, Monghyr District, Bengal; sacred to Chándi, the tutelary goddess of the place. The shrine is covered by a small brick building.

Chándkhálí.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the Kabadak, about 10 miles north of the point where that river enters the Sundarban forest. Lat. 22° 32′ 0″ N., long. 89° 17′ 30″ E. Chándkhálí was one of the villages founded about 1782, by Mr. Henckell, the Magistrate, in pursuance of his scheme for the reclamation of the SUNDARBANS. It is now a leading mart in this part of the country, to which the villagers bring their rice for sale, purchasing in return their little home stores and necessaries. Monday is the market day, and the picturesque scene is thus graphically described by Mr. J. Westland in his District Report on Jessor:—'If one were to visit Chándkhálí on an ordinary day, one would see a few sleepy huts on the river bank, and pass it by as some insignificant village. The huts are, many of them, shops, and they are situated round a square; but there are no purchasers to be seen, and the square is deserted. On Sunday, however, large native craft come up from all directions, but chiefly from Calcutta, and anchor along the banks of the river and creek, waiting for the market. On Monday, boats pour in from all directions laden with grain, and others come with purchasers. The river, a large enough one, and the *khál* or creek, become alive with native craft and boats, pushing in among each other, and literally covering the face of the water. Sales are going on rapidly amid all the hubbub; and the traders and merchants are filling their ships with the grain which the husbandmen have brought alongside and sold to them. The greater part of the traffic takes place on the water; but on land, too, it is a busy sight. On water or on land, there is probably a representative from nearly every house for miles around. They have come to sell their grain and to buy their stores; numberless hawkers have come to offer these stores for sale—oil, turmeric, tobacco, vegetables, and all the other luxuries of a peasant's life. By evening, the business is done; the husbandmen turn their

boats homewards; the hawkers go off to the next market village, or procure fresh supplies; and with the first favourable tide the ships weigh anchor, and take their cargoes away to Calcutta. By Tuesday morning, the place is deserted.' Chándkhálí is also the principal seat of the Sundarbans wood trade. Police outpost station.

Chándko.—The old name for a fertile tract of alluvial land in Sind, on the right bank of the Indus, lying between 26° 40′ and 27° 20′ N. lat., and between 67° 25′ and 68° E. long. It is inhabited by the Chándia tribe, to the chief of whom a portion was made over in *jágír* by the Tálpur dynasty in 1818. In 1842, Wáli Muhammad, the then *jágírdár*, having shown sympathy with the hostile Mírs, this estate was seized by Mír Alí Murád of Khairpur. Sir C. Napier, however, restored it. In 1859, the original portion was confirmed to the present chief, Gháibi Khán Chándra. The chief town of this tract is GHAIBI DERO.

Chándnia (*Chándmayá*, formerly *Chámpánagar*).—Village in Bográ District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 1′ N., long. 89° 23′ E.; 5 miles north of Mahásthán, 300 years ago the largest commercial centre in this part of the Province. Has been identified with the Tessendia of Van den Broucke's map of 1660. On either side of the village are the two marshes of Gori and Sonrái, said to be the remains of great rivers; in the middle of the latter, is a raised piece of ground called the House of Padmadeví, a serpent goddess.

Chándod.—Place of Hindu pilgrimage in Guzerat, within the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda; situated 30 miles south-east of Baroda, on the right bank of the river Narbadá (Nerbudda), in lat. 21° 58′ N., and long. 73° 29′ E. Close to Chándod is the village of Karnáli. Both these villages, the temples, and certain sacred spots on the river, are twice a year visited by from 20,000 to 25,000 persons.

Chándor.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name, in Násik District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 19′ 40″ N., and long. 74° 19′ 0″ E., at the foot of a range of hills varying from 4000 to 4500 feet in height. Pop. (1872), 5662; municipal income (1874-75), £82, derived from a house-tax, and chiefly expended on the roads; rate of taxation, 3½d. per head. Before the opening of the railway there was a small manufacture of copper and brass pots and ironwork. A market is held here once a week, and there is a post office. Chándor is said to have been founded by Holkár in 1763, and remained until recently the private property of that chief. The present Mahárájá has a large, and once magnificent, house (*wádá*) in the centre of the town. The old fort of Chándor, on the flat summit of a hill rising immediately above the town, is nearly inaccessible, and commands an important *ghát* or passage on the route from Khandesh to Bombay.

Chándpur. — *Tahsíl* of Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western

Provinces. Area, 305 square miles, of which 197 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 129,183; land revenue, £17,653; total Government revenue, £19,685; rental paid by cultivators, £35,562; incidence of Government revenue, 1s. 9⅝d. per acre.

Chándpur.—Municipal town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 29° 8′ 25″ N., long. 78° 18′ 50″ E.; area, 135 acres; pop. (1872), 12,033, almost entirely Musalmáns. Distant from Bijnaur 19 miles south. Handsome mosque, said to be 250 years old. Trade in sugar and grain. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £899; from taxes, £603, or 1s. per head of population within municipal limits.

Chándpur. — Seaside village at the mouth of the Húglí, Midnapur District, Bengal; a few miles higher up than Bírkul, and 14 miles from Contai, with which it is connected by a fair-weather road. This place and BIRKUL are favourably situated for watering-places and sanitaria for Calcutta during the hot summer months; but nothing has yet been done towards providing accommodation for travellers. Chándpur is situated a short distance inland, well raised above inundation level, and with a fine turf lawn half a mile long by 300 yards broad, on almost any part of which excellent water is to be got by digging. The sea is visible from this raised lawn; and below is a beach of firm, hard sand, stretching for miles on either side. Water carriage is available almost to the very spot; and during the summer months there is a cool sea-breeze, day and night.

Chandra. — River in Kángra District, Punjab, and one of the principal headwaters of the Chenáb. Rises in Láhul, from the side of a huge snow-bed, more than 16,000 feet above the sea, on the south-eastern slopes of the Bárá Lácha Pass. Becomes unfordable a mile below its source. Flows south-eastward for 55 miles, when it sweeps round the base of the Mid-Himálayas, until it is joined by the BHAGA river at Tándi, after a course of 115 miles, in lat. 32° 33′ N., and long. 77° 1′ E. For the first 75 miles, the valley of the Chandra is entirely uninhabited, the bare hills sloping down to its bed and hemming it in with broken cliffs. Their sides, however, yield a scanty pasturage for sheep and goats during the summer months. Near the Pálamo Pass, the river expands into a lake three-quarters of a mile in length. Permanent habitations first occur near Koksar, at the foot of the Rohtang Pass. From this point the Chandra enters a wider valley, dotted with villages and cultivated fields. On the southern side, however, the mountains overhang its bed in precipitous masses, a cliff above Ghondlá rising to a sheer height of 11,000 feet from the water's edge. After its junction with the Bhága, at Tandi, the united stream bears the name of CHENAB. The fall on the Chandra from its source to Tándi averages 65 feet per mile.

chiefly agricultural, living in 57 villages, on an area of 25 square miles. It is entirely under cultivation, and is reckoned the most fertile tract in the District. There was, in 1870, a good vernacular school, with 9[illegible] pupils. Chandrapur contained a population, in 1870, of 36,157, also chiefly agricultural, living in 182 villages; area, 90 square miles. Anglo-vernacular school, with 80 pupils. Both places produce *tasár* silk and cotton cloth. The present chief is a son of the original grantee.

Chándur.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar; 16 miles east of Ellichpur town. Pop. (1867), 4205. Weekly market. A toll of 3d. is levied on each cart-load, and 1½d. on each bullock-load, brought to market; the amount thus realized is devoted to market improvements. Municipal collections in 1869, £235. Police station.

Chándur.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar, and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name. Lat. 20° 49′ N., long. 78° 1′ E. The station of the same name on the Great Indian Peninsular Railway (430 miles from Bombay) is about a mile distant. Travellers' bungalow near the station.

Chánduriá.—Trading village in the north of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Ichhámatí. Lat. 22° 54′ 45″ N.; long. 88° 56′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 2850, residing in 551 houses; municipal income (1876-77), £82. Town police force of 1 officer and 5 men.

Cháng Bhakár.—Native State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, lying between lat. 23° 29′ and 23° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 81° 37′ and 82° 23′ 30″ E.; area, 906 square miles. Pop. (1872), 8919. It forms the extreme western point of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, projecting into the Independent State of Rewah, which bounds it on the north-west and south; on the east, it marches with the State of Koreá, of which, until 1848, it was a feudal dependency. The general aspect of Cháng Bhakár is that of a dense and tangled mass of hills, ravines, and plateaux, covered with *sál* jungle, and dotted at intervals with small villages. The most prominent of the hill ranges takes a serpentine sweep from north-east to south-west, and rises in occasional peaks to upwards of 3000 feet above sea level. The scenery in the interior of the country is for the most part monotonous. Hill after hill repeats the same general outline, and is clothed with the same sombre masses of *sál* foliage. Portions of both northern and southern frontiers rise into bold cliffs, and seem to present an almost inaccessible barrier to a hostile advance. Notwithstanding these strong natural defences, the State suffered so seriously in former days from Marhattá and Pindárí inroads, that the chief granted eight of his frontier villages to influential Rájputs of Rewah to secure their co-operation against the marauders. Tigers, bears, and leopards abound, and wild elephants, till recently, committed such serious ravages among the crops as to cause the abandonment of several villages. Th

Bhaya, or Chief, of Cháng Bhakár is a Rájput by caste, belonging to a collateral branch of the Koreá Rájás. His residence is in the village of Janakpur, a mere collection of wretched huts. The Chief's dwelling is a double-storied range of mud buildings enclosing a courtyard. His annual revenue is returned at £300; tribute, £38. Population in 1872, classified according to religion, 2728 Hindus, 34 Muhammadans, and 6157 of other denominations, professing various aboriginal forms of faith—total, 8919, residing in 100 villages and 1929 houses; average density of population, 10 per square mile; persons per village, 89; persons per house, 4·6. Classified according to race—Kolarian aborigines, 3195, or 35·8 per cent. of total population; Dravidian aborigines, 2955, or 33·1 per cent.; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 1459, or 16·3 per cent.; Hindus, 1276, or 14·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 34, or ·4 per cent. The Dravidian Gonds form the most influential race in the State. Among the Kolarian tribes are a curious race, called Muásis or Kurus, who are identified by Colonel Dalton with the Kurs of Betúl, Hoshangábád, and Nimár in the Central Provinces. Their deities are derived from Hindu mythology, and in social customs they partly conform to Hinduism and partly to Gond practices. The aboriginal races are generally poor, and their crops barely suffice for their actual requirements. Their ordinary clothing consists of little more than a waist cloth; but on festivals the Kolarians appear in clean white clothing, while the Gonds affect colours. The Hindus are generally well dressed, and the better classes of all castes wear quilted garments of dark coloured cotton, with caps to match. Two hill passes lead into the State, which is intersected by two jungle roads.

Changrezhing.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab, near the north-eastern frontier, dividing that principality from Chinese territory, 3 miles east of the Li, or river of Spiti. Lat. 32° 3′ N., long. 78° 40′ E. Inhabited in summer only by peasants from the neighbouring hamlet of Chango. Forms, according to Thornton, the farthest eastern limit of European exploration in this direction, the Chinese population of the adjacent country vigilantly interfering with all further progress.

Changsil.—Range of mountains in Bashahr State, Punjab, lying between 30° 56′ and 31° 20′ N. lat., and between 77° 54′ and 78° 12′ E. long. Proceeds in a south-westerly direction from the Himálayan range, and forms the southern boundary of Kunáwar. Traversed by numerous passes, having elevations of between 13,000 and 14,000 feet above the sea.

Channagiri. — *Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore. Area, 467 square miles; pop. (1871), 69,417; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £10,132, or 4s. 3d. per cultivated acre.

Channagiri. — Municipal village in Shimoga District, Mysore; 25 miles by road north-east of Shimoga. Lat. 14° 1′ N., long.

75° 59′ E.; pop. (1871), 3277, including several Lingáyat traders; municipal revenue (1874-75), £320; rate of taxation, 1s. 11d. per head. Headquarters of *táluk* of the same name.

Channapatna (or *Chennapatnam*, 'Handsome city').—Together with Sukravárpet, a municipality in Bangalore District, Mysore; 37 miles by road south-west from Bangalore. Lat. 12° 38′ N., long. 77° 13′ E.; pop. (1871), 7101, of whom 3017 Muhammadans and 10 Christians are found in Sukravárpet, the industrial quarter; municipal revenue, £50; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. The fort was built about 1580 by Jagat Deva Ráyal, who founded a family that ruled until 1630, when they were overthrown by the Wodeyár of Mysore. It now contains a palace erected by a relative of the late Mahárájá, but has been much depopulated by fever. Sukravárpet, lying to the north-east, is celebrated for the manufacture of lacquered ware and toys, fine steel wire for strings of musical instruments, and glass bracelets. It contains a large number of Muhammadans belonging to the Labbe and Dáira sects, who trade with the western coast. North of the *pét* are two large Musalmán tombs—one erected to the memory of the religious preceptor of Tipú, the other for a commandant of Bangalore, who was distinguished for his humanity to Tipú's British prisoners. Until 1873, headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Chanráypatna.—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore. Area, 454 square miles; pop. (1871), 78,163; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £11,939, or 3s. 6d. per cultivated acre.

Chanráypatna.—Municipal village in Hassan District, Mysore; 22 miles by road east of Hassan. Lat. 12° 54′ 12″ N., long. 76° 25′ 55″ E.; pop. (1871), 2676, including 437 Muhammadans; municipal revenue (1874-75), £167; rate of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head. Originally called Kolatúr, the name was changed in 1600 by a local chief, who erected a temple to Chenna Ráya Swámí or Vishnu, after whom his own son had been named. The fort was built subsequently, and Haidar Alí added the wet moat and traverse gateways. Small articles of silk are made by the Musalmáns. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Chantapilli (*Santapilly, Sentapilli*).—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated 5 miles north-east of Konáda point and hamlet, in lat. 18° 4′ 25″ N., and long. 83° 42′ 0″ E.; pop. (1871), 810. On the summit of a small hill stands the 'Santapilly' lighthouse, erected in 1847 to warn shipping, especially vessels making the port of Bimlipatam, off the rocks. The lighthouse is distant about 6½ miles, bearing south-east half-east. The light is visible 14 miles to seaward.

Chánwarpátha.—The northern Revenue District or *tahsíl* of Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 52,145, dwelling in 144 townships or villages and 9700 houses; area, 269 square miles; land revenue, £5466; total revenue, £5746.

Chaprá.—Headquarters Subdivision of Sáran District, Bengal. Area, 1361 square miles, with 2228 villages or towns and 163,261 houses. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 1,054,652; Muhammadans, 114,637; Christians, 154; 'others,' 8; total, 1,169,451, viz. 552,566 males and 616,885 females. Average density of population, 859 per square mile; houses per square mile, 120; average of persons per village, 525; average of persons per house, 7·2. The Subdivision comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Chaprá, Dighwárá, Prasá, Mánjhi, Mashrak, and Basantpur. In 1869, it contained 17 magisterial and civil courts, a regular police force 463 strong, and 3188 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen; total cost of Subdivisional administration, £18,086.

Chaprá. — Chief town and administrative headquarters of Sáran District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 46′ 42″ N., and long. 84° 46′ 49″ E. A long straggling town, 3 miles in length, with a breadth nowhere exceeding a quarter of a mile. The site is very low, and only protected from annual inundations by the embanked tramway road. When this road is breached, as happened in 1871, much damage is caused by the floods. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 35,908; Muhammadans, 10,295; Christians, 83; 'others,' 1; total, 46,287, viz. 22,852 males and 23,435 females. The town contains the usual Government courts and offices, jail, police station, handsome *sarái* or rest-house, Government English school, and charitable dispensary. It is also a station of the German Lutheran Mission. Chaprá has suffered much commercially from the recession of the Ganges, which formerly flowed close under the town; while its main channel is now a mile distant in the cold weather. It is still, however, a place of importance, and contains many wealthy native banking houses. Goods of all kinds are obtainable in the *bázár*, pottery and brass utensils forming a specialty. At the end of the last century, the French, Dutch, and Portuguese had factories at Chaprá. The District of Sáran was then famed for its saltpetre, and the Chaprá mark was especially esteemed; but this trade has been on the decline for many years past. Roads radiate from Chaprá to Sonpur, Rewah, Mashrak, Sewán, and Guthní. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £2505; expenditure, £1923; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Chapraulí.—Large village in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 50′ 15″ N., long. 77° 36′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 5594, comprising 4691 Hindus and 903 Musalmáns. Stands on a raised site, 5 miles from Meerut city. Large community of Sarangi Banias, possessing a handsome temple. Said to have been colonized by Játs in the 8th century. About 150 years ago, the original inhabitants received among them the Játs of Mírpur, who had been almost ruined by the incursions of the Síkhs; and since that time the town has largely

increased. Agricultural centre, without trade or manufactures. *Bázár*, *sarái*, police station, post office.

Charamái.—Lake in Bashahr State, Punjab; near the summit of the Barenda Pass, at an elevation of 13,839 feet above sea level. Lat. 31° 23′ N., long. 78° 11′ E. From its bed the river Pábur takes its rise, and immediately precipitates itself over a ledge of rock, in a fall of 100 feet. Massive beds of snow surround the lake, while others form a natural bridge over the Pábur, or hem it in with frozen cliffs of ice.

Chárápunji.—Town in the Khásí Hills, Assam.—*See* CHERRA POONJEE.

Charda.—*Parganá* in Bahráich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nepál State, the Rápti river marking the boundary line; on the east by Bhinga *parganá*; and on the south and west by Nánpára. The history of this *parganá* is virtually that of NANPARA. Occupied successively by hill chieftains, the Ikauna family and the Sayyids, it was finally bestowed upon a relative of the Nánpára Rájá, and held by him and his descendants till 1857, when the estate was confiscated for the rebellion of its holder, and conferred upon loyal grantees. It is intersected by the Bhaklá river, which divides it into two distinct tracts. The country between the Bhaklá and the Rápti lies low, and has a rich alluvial soil. The tract west of the Bhaklá forms a portion of the tableland described under BAHRAICH *parganá*. Area, 206 square miles, of which 142 are under cultivation, and 51 cultivable waste. Government land revenue, £13,253; average incidence, 2s. 11¼d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 4⅝d. per acre of assessable area, and 2s. 2¾d. per acre of total area. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 58,326; Muhammadans, 6965; total, 65,291, viz. 34,031 males and 31,260 females. Number of villages, 177; average density of population, 309 per square mile. Two Government roads intersect the *parganá*. Several market villages, three Government schools, police station, post office.

Chardwár.—Fiscal Division or *mahál* in Darrang District, Assam. Area, 1130 square miles. In the north is the Chardwár forest reserve, lying between the Belsorí and Mansirí rivers, with a total area of 80 square miles. This reserve includes an experimental plantation of caoutchouc trees (Ficus elastica), covering an area of 430 acres, on which £1075 had been spent up to March 1877. The proportion of failure among the seedlings and cuttings has been about 18 per cent.

Charka.—One of the petty States in South Káthiáwár, Bombay consisting of one village, with 4 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £120. Tribute of £50 is paid to the British Government, and about £4 to Junágarh.

Charkhári.—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the Central Indi

Agency and the Government of India; lying between 25° 21′ and 25° 36′ N. lat., and between 79° 40′ and 79° 58′ E. long. Area, 861 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 121,000. The present Mahárájá, Dhiráj Jái Sinh Deo, was born about 1853. Like all the Bundela chiefs, he is descended from Rájá Chattar Sál. His ancestor, Bijí Bahádur, was the first who submitted to the authority of the British; a *sanad* confirming him in his principality was granted to him in 1804, and confirmed in 1811. His successor remained faithful to the British Government during the Mutiny, protecting European officers and native officials. In reward for his services, he was granted the privilege of adoption, a *jágír* of £2000 a year in perpetuity, a dress of honour, and a salute of 11 guns. The revenue of the State is 5 *lákhs* of rupees per annum (say £50,000).

Charkhári.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Bundelkhand, Central India; situated on the route from Gwalior to Bánda, 41 miles from the latter place. Lat. 25° 24′ N., long. 79° 47′ E. Occupies a picturesque site at the base of a high rocky hill surmounted by a fort, to which access can be obtained only through a flight of steps cut in the rock, on such a scale as to be practicable for elephants. Two neighbouring elevations command the fortress for all purposes of modern warfare. Below the town lies a considerable lake; good roads, embowered among trees, lead from it in all directions; and a tank, commenced as a relief work, commands the surrounding fields.

Charmadi (or *Kodekal;* called also the *Bhím* or *Búhmghát*).—Pass in the Uppanagadi *táluk*, South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 4′ 30″ N., long. 75° 27′ 0″ E. Opened in 1864, and now one of the main lines for wheeled traffic, and specially for coffee transport between Mangalore and Mysore.

Charrá.—Village in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 23′ 0″ N., long. 86° 27′ 30″ E. Situated near Puruliá town, and containing two very old stone Jain temples, called *deuls* or *deválayas*, built of roughly cut stone, without cement. There were originally seven of these temples, but five have fallen into ruins, and the fragments have been used for building houses in the village. Of the remaining two, the most perfect is tower-shaped, terminating in a dome of horizontal courses of stone about 30 feet high, with a circular finial like a huge cog-wheel, and the remains of flag-roofed colonnades on both sides. The slabs forming the roof are great blocks of granite from 5 to 9 feet in length, 2 to 2½ in breadth, and 1 foot thick. There is no carving about the temples, nor any object of worship in the shrines; but on the stones scattered about, traces of the nude Tirthankaras, or Jain deified saints, are visible. The construction of some large ancient tanks in the vicinity is also attributed to the Sráwak Jains.

Chársáda.—Town in Pesháwar District, Punjab, and headquarters of the Háshtnagar *tahsíl*. Lat. 34° 9′ N., long. 71° 46′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 7233, comprising 6780 Muhammadans and 453 Hindus. Situated on the Swát river, 15 miles north-east of Pesháwar. Large and prosperous agricultural village rather than a town, but containing several enterprising Hindu traders. Chársáda is almost contiguous to the neighbouring large village of Práng; and these two places are identified by General Cunningham with the ancient Pushkalavati, capital of the surrounding region at the time of Alexander's invasion, and transliterated as Peukelas or Peukelaotis by the Greek historians. Its chieftain (Astes), according to Arrian, was killed in defence of one of his strongholds after a prolonged siege by Hephaistion. Ptolemy fixes its site upon the eastern bank of the Suastene or Swát. In the 7th century A.D., Hiouen Thsang visited the city, which he describes as being 100 *li* (16⅔ miles) north-east of Pesháwar. A *stupa* or tower, erected over the spot where Buddha made an alms-offering of his eyes, formed the great attraction for the Buddhist pilgrim and his co-religionists. The city, however, had even then been abandoned as a political capital, in favour of Parasháwára or Pesháwar. It probably extended over a large area. The entire neighbourhood is, according to General Court, covered with vast ruins.

Chartháwal.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 32′ 30″ N., long. 77° 38′ 10″ E.; pop. (1872), 5121, comprising 3209 Hindus and 1912 Muhammadans. Police station, post office. Distant from Muzaffarnagar 7 miles west, from the Hindan river 3 miles east, and from the Káli Nadi 5 miles west. Once the residence of an *ámil*, but now a small agricultural town.

Cháta.—*Tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the centre of the trans-Jumna portion, and traversed by the Agra Canal. Forms part of the Braj-Mandal of ancient Hindu topography, one of the earliest settlements colonized by the Aryan immigrants into India. Area, 250 square miles, of which 204 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 101,590; land revenue, £17,789; total Government revenue, £19,846; rental paid by cultivators, £31,723; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 2⅝d. per acre.

Cháta.—Town in Muttra District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 27° 43′ N., long. 77° 32′ 50″ E. Distant 9 miles west of the Jumna, and on the northern border of the *parganá*. Area, 80 acres; pop. (1872), 6720.

Chátná.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*), in Bánkurá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 18′ 30″ N., long. 87° 0′ 20″ E. Formerly in Mánbhúm District, but recently transferred, together with the *thána*, to Bánkurá.

Chatrá.—Municipal town in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; situated

about 36 miles north-west of Hazáribágh town. Lat. 24° 12′ 27″ N., long. 84° 55′ E. The chief market of the District, carrying on a considerable trade with Lohárdaga, Gayá, Sháhábád, Patná, Bardwán, and Calcutta. A large cattle fair, held annually during the *Dasahará* festival, is attended by butchers from Calcutta. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 6519; Muhammadans, 2196; 'others,' 103; total, 8818, viz. 4287 males and 4531 females. Municipal income (1876-77), £427; average incidence of taxation, 10⅝d. per head. On the 2d October 1857, an engagement took place at Chatrá between H.M.'s 53d Foot—supported by a detachment of Rattray's Síkhs—and the Rámgarh Battalion, which had mutinied at Ránchí, and was marching to join Kunwár (Kooer) Sinh at Bhojpur in Sháhábád. The mutineers, posted in great force on the brow of a hill, made a stubborn resistance, but were defeated with a loss of 40 men and all their supplies.

Chatrapur.—State and town in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* CHHATARPUR.

Chatrapur (*Sitarampalli*).—Town in Ganjám District, Madras; situated 13 miles north-east of Barhampur. Lat. 19° 21′ N., long. 85° 3′ E.; houses, 4016; pop. (1871), 2018. The residence of the Collector of the District, and of the superintendent of police. Formerly the site of the East India Company's stud farm.

Chaugáchhá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the bank of the Kabadak river. A sugar manufacturing and refining village, surrounded by groves of date palms.

Chaughát (*Chavakadu*).—Formerly a *táluk* of Malabar District, Madras; but in 1860 amalgamated with Katinad and Betutnad, and formed into the present *táluk* of Ponáni.

Chaughát (*Chavakadu*).—Town in the Ponáni *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 10° 35′ N., long. 76° 3′ 51″ E.; houses, 1022; pop. (1871), 5457, chiefly native Christians and Moplás. Formerly the headquarters of the CHAUGHAT *táluk*, and still containing subordinate judicial and administrative offices; local funds school, etc.

Chauka.—River in Oudh; the name assumed by the Sárda after it passes Maraunchaghát, and until it joins the Gogra at Bahramghát, after a winding course of 150 miles through Kheri and Sítápur Districts. Since 1865, the main stream has formed a new bed for itself near the village of Airá, and now falls into the Gogra at Mallápur, 60 miles above the former point of confluence.—*See* SARDA.

Chaukídángá.—One of the principal mines in the Ráníganj coal tract, Bardwán District, Bengal; situated in the Singáran valley; total thickness of seam, consisting of alternate layers of coal and shale, 15 feet 9 inches; thickness of coal in seam, 14 feet 6 inches. This colliery was first worked in 1834; in 1861 much damage was caused by fire, owing to the liability of the Ráníganj coal to spontaneous combustion.

Chaur, The.—Peak in Sirmúr State, Punjab, forming the highest summit among the mountains which occupy the sub-Himálayan tract, with an elevation of 11,982 feet above the sea. Lat. 30° 52′ N., long. 77° 32′ E. From its peculiar shape and great height, it forms a conspicuous element in the landscape for many miles around, being easily recognised amongst the smaller ridges on every side. The Chaur presents a striking appearance from the plains of Sirhind, and the view from its summit embraces the vast lowland tract on the south, and a wide panorama of the snowy range to the northward. Though below the limit of perpetual snow, drifts remain in the shady chasms on its flanks throughout the summer months. A dense forest of huge *deodárs* and other conifers clothe the northern and north-eastern declivities, and rhododendrons, ferns, or gentians grow in patches on the detritus of its granite slopes.

Chaurádádar. — Hill plateau in the east of Mandla District, Central Provinces; upwards of 3200 feet above sea level. The winter nights are intensely cold, and in the hottest days of April and May the heat is not excessive. Water is abundant, and but for its inaccessibility, Chaurádádar might prove an excellent sanitarium.

Chaurágarh. — Ruined fortress in Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces; on the crest of the outer range of the Sátpura tableland, 800 feet above the level of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and 20 miles south-west of Narsinhpur. Lat. 22° 46′ N., long. 78° 59′ E. The northern, eastern, and western faces of the fort are scarped for several hundred feet; while to the south a small hill has been fortified as an outwork. The circuit of defences embraces two hills, divided by a dip of about 100 yards. On one of these stand the ruins of the palace of the old Gond Rájás, and on the other the remains of barracks built by the Nágpur Government. Numerous tanks yield a constant supply of water; and the exterior walls are still good in many parts. There are three approaches.

Chausá.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Sháhábád District, Bengal; 4 miles west of Baxár town, and close to the east bank of the Karamnása. Noted as the scene of the defeat of the Emperor Humáyun by the Afghán Sher Sháh, in June 1539. The emperor, with a few friends, was barely able to escape by crossing the Ganges, but 8000 Mughal troops perished in the attempt. In the following year, after a second defeat of Humáyun near Kanauj, Sher Sháh ascended the Imperial throne of Delhi.

Chausá.—Canal in Sháhábád District, Bengal; a branch of the Són Canal system, leaving the 'Main Western Canal' at the 12th mile from the headworks at Dehri. Forty miles in length. Designed for irrigation only; discharge, 545 feet per second.

Chawindah.—Village in Siálkot District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 20′ 45′

N., long. 74° 45′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 5082, comprising 1424 Hindus, 3052 Muhammadans, 244 Síkhs, and 362 'others.' Distant from Siálkot 14 miles south-east, on the road to Zaffarwál. Purely agricultural community, consisting chiefly of Bajwa Játs, the proprietors of the surrounding lands. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £59, or 2½d. per head of population (5243) within municipal limits.

Chedambram.—Town and shrine in South Arcot District, Madras. —*See* CHIDAMBARAM.

Cheduba (or *Man-oung*).—Island on the east coast of the Bay of Bengal, forming a township in Kyouk-hpyu District, Arakan, British Burma. Lat. 18° 40′ to 18° 56′ 30″ N.; long. 93° 30′ to 93° 47′ E.; pop. (1877), 22,078; area, 120 square miles. Headquarters at Cheduba or Man-oung. The general appearance and character of Cheduba are those of a fertile, well-wooded island. A narrow plain, slightly above the sea level, extends round the coast; within lie irregular, low, undulating hills, varying in height from 50 to 500 feet, enclosing several detached mounds (the highest about 1400 feet), with steep, well-wooded sides. In the extreme north-west corner is a so-called 'volcano,' from which flames issue, but which are really due to a copious discharge of inflammable gas, and not to volcanic action. Petroleum is found in several places on the island. A considerable quantity of rice is exported; and Cheduba is noted for the excellence of its tobacco. The township is divided into 8 revenue circles; the gross revenue realized in 1877 was £6902. Two derivations are given for the name 'Man-oung,' which signifies 'overcoming of the evil disposition.' According to ancient tradition, a governor of the island, appointed by Tsan-da-ra I., King of Arakan, who reigned some 2000 years B.C., so oppressed the people, that they complained to the sovereign, who summoned the governor to appear before him. On the governor refusing to attend the court, the monarch struck the sea with a rod, and ordered it to bring his disobedient subject into his presence. The sea obeyed, and in a few days the dead body of the rebel was washed ashore near the royal city. According to another account, the island was the place of transportation for those considered to be politically dangerous, whose evil disposition was thus overcome by their being rendered powerless. The classical name is Mek-kha-wa-dí. The name Cheduba, by which the island is known to Europeans and natives of India, is said to be a corruption of Char-dhuba, or 'four capes,' from the headlands at the four corners of the island. A shoal, with probably only two or three fathoms at low water, has lately been discovered 8 miles to the north-west of Beacon Island, Cheduba. In October 1878, the Government deemed it necessary to warn mariners that 'the whole of the neighbourhood of Cheduba and Rámrí (Ramree) islands is imperfectly known, and careful navigation is necessary.'

Cheduba (or *Man-oung*).—Small town, situated on the Un-Khyoung stream, in the north-west of the island of the same name in Kyoukhpyu District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 1409. Contains a court-house, market, school, and police station. The local name of Cheduba is Zhe-dan.

Chelakere.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore.—*See* CHALAKERE.

Chenáb (*Chináb*).—River in the Punjab, and one of the five streams from which the Province derives its name. Rises in the snowy Himálayan ranges of Kashmír; pursues a winding course through the gorges of Jammu; and enters British territory in Siálkot District, near the village of Kháiri Rihál. Receives the waters of the Tavi, a considerable confluent, and forms for some 18 miles the boundary between Siálkot and Gujrát Districts. Flows in this portion of its route through the alluvial plain of the Punjab, in a wide and shifting bed of sand. It afterwards forms the limit between the Rechná and the Jech Doábs, and many flat-bottomed country boats navigate its stream. A belt of low-lying alluvial soil fringes either bank for some miles inland; but beyond this narrow zone, the water of the river becomes practically useless for purposes of irrigation. Passing along the whole western border of Gujránwála District, the Chenáb next enters the desert region of Jhang, where it occupies a broad valley, nearly 30 miles in width, consisting of modern deposits, through which the changing stream cuts itself a fresh channel from time to time. The present bed lies about midway between the high banks which confine the central valley at either end. The shores are for the most part cultivated down to the water's edge, the area under tillage having considerably increased since the settlement of the country. Numerous islands stud the river, but constantly change their places with every inundation. The depth of the stream is here about 10 feet during the cold weather, rising to 16 feet in the rainy season. At Timmu, the Chenáb and the Jhelum (Jhilam) unite. A bridge of boats carries the Grand Trunk Road over the Chenáb at Wazírábád; and another, now in course of construction, will convey the road from Jhang to Derá Ismáil Khán.

Chendavol (*Tsandavol*).—Town in Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 1′ N., long. 80° 40′ E.; houses, 989; pop. (1871), 5567. A large treasure of gold bricks was found here in 1873.

Chendiá.—Seaport in North Kanara District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £141; imports, £395.

Chendwár.—Hill in Hazáribágh District, Bengal, near Hazáribágh town; height, 2816 above sea level, and 800 feet above the elevated plateau on which it is situated. Lat. 23° 57′ 15″ N., long. 85° 28′ 30″ E.

Chengalpat (*Chingleput*, 'The brick town').—District in the Presi-

dency of Madras, lying between 12° 13′ and 13° 54′ N. lat., and between 79° 35′ and 80° 23′ E. long. Area, 2753 square miles; population in 1871, 938,184. The Bay of Bengal bounds it on the east; on the north lies Nellore District; on the south, Arcot; and on the west, North Arcot.

Physical Aspects.—The District generally presents a flat and uninteresting aspect. The land seldom rises to an elevation of more than 300 feet, and in many places near the coast it sinks below the sea level. Long reaches of blown sand, often separated from the mainland by backwaters, form the chief feature of the coast scenery; while inland, great expanses of flat rice plains, and sandy or stony wastes and prairies of poor pasture land, constitute the principal varieties of the landscape. Extensive tank beds, supporting groves of the palmyra palm, tamarind, and mango, occasionally diversify the scene. Along the north-west corner runs the Nágalapur range, and in parts of Chengalpat and Madhurántakam *táluks* the surface undulates, at times even rising into cones and ridges above 500 feet in height; but there are no other elevations deserving the name of hills. The drainage of the country is entirely from west to east, into the shallow alluvial valleys of the Narnavaram, Cortelliár, Nágari, and Pálár. The soil is for the most part poor, and, where not sandy, is very often either saline or stony. The principal streams are the Pálár, Cortelliár, Narnavaram, Nágari, Adyár, Cooum; but none are navigable, being for part of every year either empty sandbeds or trickling rivulets. The numerous backwaters along the coast are connected by canals, and to these is confined all water traffic. The Ennúr (Ennore) backwater and Pulicat Lake are the most important. The coast line measures 115 miles, and the well-known 'Madras surf' beats on it throughout its length. Except Pulicat, there is not a single harbour for even the smallest craft; but, on the other hand, there are only two points of danger along the line—the Pulicat shoal, and the reef near Covelong. The average depth at Narnavaram, 400 yards off shore, is over 20 feet, and the bottom is firm throughout. The tide rises and falls 3 feet at the full and new moons. Of mineral wealth, the District possesses little or none; laterite, for building purposes, and the Chengalpat felspar and granite, used in ornamental work, representing all its known resources.

The only forests are the poor growths on the Nágalapur Hills, recently conserved, and as yet yielding no revenue. But, on the sand-dunes of the coast, a large area, 20,000 acres in 1876, has been taken up by private enterprise for *casuarina* plantations. This tree yields rapid returns, attaining its full growth in ten years; and as there is a very large and increasing demand for firewood in Madras, the enterprise will probably before long attain such proportions as to alter entirely the physical aspect of the coast tracts. The flora of the District includes the cocoa-nut and palmyra palms, the mango, *pípal*, banian, tama-

rind, *bábúl* (Acacia Arabica), *margosa*, and *korckapillai* (Garcinia cambogia). As might be expected in a metropolitan District, closely cultivated and traversed by many roads and canals, as well as by the railway, there is no large game. Alligators are found in the larger tanks; and snakes abound. During 1874-75, about £100 was paid in rewards for the destruction of venomous snakes.

History.—Chengalpat formed part of the ancient kingdom of Vijáyanagar, and is studded throughout with places of historical interest; indeed, there is hardly a village within 30 miles south and west of Madras that is not mentioned by the historians of Southern India. After the overthrow of the Vijáyanagar dynasty at Tálikot in 1564, the Ráya kings fell back on Chandragiri and Vellore; and the vicinity of Chengalpat to the latter fortress makes it probable that the power of the family extended over the present District. At any rate, when in 1639 the East India Company negotiated for the site of the present city of Madras, it was from Srí Ranga Ráya that the grant was finally obtained. During the struggle between the British and the French for the mastery of the Karnatic, Chengalpat and many other towns in the District were the scene of constant fighting. In 1760, the District, or *jágír*, as it was then and long after called, was granted to the Company in perpetuity by the Nawáb of Arcot, 'for services rendered to him and his father;' and in 1763 this grant was confirmed by the Emperor Sháh Alam. From 1763 till 1780, it was leased to the Nawáb; and during that period was twice ravaged by Haidar Alí, once in 1768, and again in 1780. On the latter occasion, the Mysore chief almost depopulated the District; and what fire and sword had left undone, famine completed. Since that year, the history of the District consists chiefly of a chronicle of territorial arrangements and transfers. In 1784, it was divided into 14 separate farms, and rented out. Four years later, it was parcelled out into collectorates, which again, in 1793, were united into one 'District.' In 1801, the Sattiawid division and the territory about Pulicat (ceded to the Dutch by the Nawáb) were added to Chengalpat. The former was transferred in 1804 to North Arcot, but reunited to this District partly in 1850, when 53 of its villages were incorporated with the Ponnéri *táluk*, and altogether when the remaining 90 were subsequently made over to the Tiruvallur *táluk*. The 'home farms,' and some other villages which, till 1798, formed the jurisdiction of the 'Recorder's Court,' were in that year separated from the Chengalpat Collectorate, and placed under the officer then called the 'Land Customer,' but subsequently appointed 'Collector of Madras.' In 1860, the town of Madras, the sea-customs excepted, was transferred to Chengalpat; but in 1870, the former arrangement was reverted to, and the Collectorate of Madras remains distinct from that of this District.

Population.—Several attempts have been made to enumerate the inhabitants. The first Census, taken in 1795-96, when the District was just beginning to recover from the Mysore devastations, gave a total population of 217,372, inhabiting 59,911 houses. The next, in 1850, showed 583,462 souls; in 1859, 603,221, living in 93,310 houses; in 1866, 804,283, in 123,605 dwellings. The regular Census of 1871 disclosed a population of 938,184 persons, and divided among 141,434 households. The average density of the population is 340·7 to the square mile, ranging from 604 in Sáidapet to 276 in Chengalpat. Classified according to religion, there were 899,686 Hindus, Vaishnavs and Sivaites in equal proportion; 23,192 Muhammadans, chiefly Sunnis; 15,156 Christians, of whom 75 per cent. were Roman Catholics; 'others,' 150. Forty per cent. of the Hindus belonged to the agricultural castes of Vallála and Vannia; 7 per cent. were artisans (Kammalaus) and weavers (Kaikalars); 6 per cent. shepherds (Idaiyars); 4 per cent. Bráhman priests; 2 per cent. traders; and 26 per cent. 'pariahs;' the remainder being fishermen, toddy-drawers, potters, weavers, barbers, writers, etc. The Kshattriya or warrior caste is the most weakly represented of all, forming only 0·6 per cent. Wandering tribes, so numerous in other Districts, are here represented only by a few Irulárs, a jungle tribe. The Muhammadans, arranged according to sects, showed 16 per cent. Labbays, 55 per cent. Shaikhs, 12 per cent. Sayyids, the remainder being divided between Patháns, Mughals, and Moplás. The males outnumbered the females by 13,000, although, owing no doubt to the Hindu custom of reckoning girls as women, the adult females were returned as being 4000 in excess of the men. Regarding the Hindu castes, it is noteworthy that this is the only Madras District in which the Vallálas are not most numerous. Pariahs are numerically the strongest caste; the Vannias come next; and after them, the Vallálas. These three castes are extensively influenced by European contact; for, though the great majority engage only in the agricultural and servile labour that tradition assigns them, many of them have pushed to the front, and they now fill one-third of the official posts within the reach of natives. Classified according to occupations, 30 per cent. of the adult males were cultivators; 14 per cent. labourers; 11 per cent. were engaged in industrial pursuits; 4 per cent. in professional work; 3 per cent. followed commercial pursuits; 2 per cent. were in domestic service, and the remaining 36 per cent. are returned as non-working, or of uncertain occupation. Of those in 'the professions,' it is noteworthy that in this District, which lies near the capital, and is therefore under the influence of the British example of toleration and indifference to caste, there are as many Pariahs as Bráhmans. From the same cause, and from the progress of education, orthodox Hinduism shows signs of losing ground, and an advanced Monotheism is making way. There are,

however, no Bráhma Samaj centres. The chief towns of the District are—CONJEVERAM (pop. 37,327); ST. THOMAS' MOUNT, a military cantonment (15,480); SAIDAPET (9093); CHENGALPAT (7979); UTTARAMELUR (7441); PUNAMALLA (7155); TIRUVALLUR (4785); PALLAVARAM (4390); ENNUR (4286); COVELONG (Kovilam), (4512); Madarantakam (3596); and Arni (3804). Besides these, there are 31 townships with from 2000 to 3000 inhabitants, making the total urban population 179,000, or about 20 per cent. of the whole. The villages, with from 200 to 300 inhabitants each, number 2395. The neighbourhood of the capital naturally exercises great influence on the surplus adult labour of the District, but this is nevertheless essentially agricultural. The people are much attached to their lands, and the literal interpretation given to *mirasi* rights (*vide infra*) strengthens this attachment.

Agriculture.—The land nowhere attains the high fertility of some of the other Madras Districts, and is, as a rule, poor. Where the underlying rock does not crop up, the soil is often either impregnated with soda or very sandy. Nor do the cultivators combat this natural poverty. The stubble is never left to enrich the ground, and animal manure, being required for fuel (owing to the absence of forest), is seldom applied. The absence of marsh land is a remarkable feature; but wet crops are raised in the tank-beds, and every drop of water in the District is fully utilized, all the streams being tapped by irrigation channels throughout their course. Agriculture is nevertheless very backward, a fact attributable in part to the number of absentee landowners. This leaves the land to be cultivated by rack-rented tenants (*páikárís*), checks the investment of capital in the soil, and encourages a slovenly and hand-to-mouth system of agriculture. Perhaps no better indication of the poverty of the people can be given, than that the land revenue is regularly in arrears, and that from 15 to 20 per cent. of the total has to be collected annually by coercive process. The prevalent tenure is *rayatwárí*, the cultivator holding direct from Government, with a permanent right of occupancy. Of 956,158 acres of cultivable Government land available for such holdings, 516,735 are thus held under some 55,000 separate deeds. Under this head are included 9799 'joint' holdings, a whole village being often held by coparceners. The rest of the District, 720,002 acres, is either irreclaimable Government waste or private property; about 250,000 acres of the latter are under cultivation, raising the total of productive land in the District to about 800,000 acres. Most of this, though settled in *rayatwárí* tenure, is subject to certain *mirási* or hereditary rights, which take the form of a tax paid by outsiders to the descendants of the original villagers, for the permission to cultivate. Besides the *rayatwárí* tenure, various other forms of holding obtain, the chief being *zamíndárí*, *mitta*, *shrolriem*, *jágír*, *manáyem*, and *ijárá*, all distinguished by a common system of rack-renting. About 25 per

cent. of the villages of the District thus belong to landlords with privileged tenures, and a large proportion of the proprietors are absentees. Their agents too often oppress the tenants, who occcupy only 'at will,' and are all in debt to the landlord, his agent, or the village money-lender. The soil is officially classified into four varieties—'permanently improved,' *regar* or 'alluvial,' 'red ferruginous,' and 'arenaceous,' the third being by far the most common. The proportion of 'wet' (artificially irrigated) cultivation to 'dry' is as 7 to 6. An acre of the former would be assessed at from 18s. to £1, 3s., and its yield may be estimated at about £3, 4s.; the net profit to the cultivator, after deducting land revenue, water rate, cesses, etc., and value of labour, averaging £1, 4s. per acre for each crop. In favourable situations, two crops are obtained in the year. On dry land, the assessment is about 5s. per acre, and the *rayatwári* holdings average 9½ acres. Deducting the land revenue and other expenses, the cultivator's net annual profit averages 11s. per acre, or on his total holding, £5, 4s. 6d. The chief wet land crops are rice (of three kinds—*samba*, *kar*, and *manakat*—divided by the cultivators into 31 varieties), sugar-cane, and the betel-creeper. On dry lands the staple crops are *cholam*, *ragi*, *varagu*, maize, pulses, oil-seeds, chillies, and tobacco.

Natural Calamities.—Many years have been marked by great scarcity, arising from various causes; but in five only did the scarcity amount to famine. In 1733, from neglect of irrigation; in 1780, from the ravages of the Mysore troops; in 1787, from drought; in 1785, from extraordinary floods, which destroyed the tanks and water channels; and in 1806-7, owing to a general failure of the rains throughout the Presidency, the District suffered from famine. In 1867-68, prices rose very high; and during the famine of 1876, the starvation point was nearly reached. When paddy rises to 8 lbs. for the shilling, and that price is stationary for any length of time, measures of State relief become necessary. The District is peculiarly liable to cyclones, the months of May and October being the usual periods of visitation. Between 1746 and 1846, fifteen disastrous cyclones have been recorded, and 1872 was marked by the occurrence of a most destructive storm of this kind. The cyclones are generated in the Bay of Bengal, and approach the coast of the District (the town of Madras being frequently touched by their centres) from the south-south-east, afterwards assuming a west or west-south-westerly direction. The area within which their action is usually felt extends from 109 miles north to 120 miles south of Madras. They have from the earliest times caused great destruction to shipping, strewing the coasts with wrecks, breaching the tanks, sweeping away villages, and inflicting on the country most disastrous losses in cattle and other live stock. The rainfall accompanying a cyclone averages 6 inches.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the small coast towns has long ago been attracted to Madras, and, except at the Presidency city, there is now no commercial activity along the seaboard. PULIKAT alone maintained its independence as a trading port until 1864; but in that year its customs house also was removed, and, with the exception of an occasional ship loading salt at ENNUR or COVELONG, the coast of the District is now deserted. Smugglers have therefore a large field, and periodical alarms of the evasion of customs dues on the Chengalpat coast keep the Department on the alert. Land trade (except the local interchange of field produce and the necessaries of life) exists only in the unremunerative form of through traffic to the capital; while such industries as the manufacture of spirits for local consumption, and the planting of *casuarina* groves for fuel (undertaken by European capital), belong rather to the city of Madras than to the District. The salt manufactured for Government gives employment to many thousand families, chiefly *mirásidárs* having hereditary rights to the manufacture; and the annual out-turn is valued at £250,000. Weaving occupies about 30,000 persons, but, except the finer muslins of Arni, none of the District manufactures have more than local repute. Metal-ware and indigo complete the list of the non-agricultural industries. The fresh-water fisheries yield an annual revenue of about £100; but the sea fishery, though yielding no revenue, and not under any kind of official control, is a most important industry. The number of large boats employed is over 300, and of fishermen, chiefly Roman Catholics, 14,000. An extensive trade is carried on in fresh fish, brought into Madras from 20 miles' distance on men's heads, and thence exported by rail to Bangalore. The varieties most prized are the Indian mackerel (Scomber kanagurta), mango fish (Polynemus paradiseus), mullet, seer (Cybium), and pomfret (Stromateus). Turtles from Pulikat, and oysters from Sadrás and Covelong, supply the Madras market. There were, in 1874-75, 578 miles of road in the District, nearly all metalled throughout, and under the superintendence of the Local Funds Board; and 90 miles of coast canal. The South Indian Railway cuts the District at two points—passing for 9 miles through the Conjevaram *táluk*, and again for 65 miles, running from Madras past St. Thomas' Mount, Pallávaram, Chengalpat, and Madhurántakam. The Madras Railway also passes for 40 miles of its course through the Tiruvallúr and Sáidapet *táluks*.

Administration.—The District is divided for revenue purposes into 6 *táluks*, each with its Subdivisional native establishment subordinate to the headquarters at Sáidapet, the revenue, magisterial, and civil jurisdictions being in every case conterminous. The sessions are held at Chengalpat, 33 miles from Sáidapet, where also the subordinate European staff are stationed. Within the limits of the District, but under independent jurisdiction, lies the Presidency city of MADRAS.

The total revenue of the District was returned in 1870-71 at £433,867, and the total expenditure on civil administration at £44,621. The principal items of receipt were as follows:—Land revenue, £133,473; salt, £274,891; excise on spirits and drugs, £15,061; stamps, £7059; and income tax, £3380. Chief items of expenditure:—Land revenue and excise collection, £12,778; and salt establishments, £30,526. The police force aggregated, in 1875, a total strength of 10,087 men, maintained at a cost of £13,989, or about 4d. per head of the population. Of this force, nearly one-half were jail and salt guards, the actual number of constables on general duty being 536, or 1 to every 5½ square miles and every 1750 inhabitants. There are 15 jails in the District, with an average daily population of 276 prisoners, and costing annually £1742. Education has recently made marked progress, and 8 per cent. of the population can now read and write. The colleges and schools of the Presidency city provide higher education, while 11 aided schools, with an average annual attendance of 1100 pupils teach up to the college entrance standard. About 1000 private schools provide elementary instruction to 24,000 children. Of these, one-half are under official supervision, and one-third are aided by grants according to results. The total cost to Government of education in the District in 1874-75 was £3756. Chengalpat contains only one municipality, CONJEVARAM, and 3 large military cantonments—ST. THOMAS' MOUNT, PALLAVARAM, and PUNAMALLAI.

Medical Aspects.—The climate, considering the latitude, may be called temperate, and the extremes of heat and cold experienced inland are here unknown. Both monsoons affect the District. The mean temperature for the whole year, day and night, is about 81° F., varying from 63° to 107° F. The annual rainfall averages 46 inches; but no general average can be trusted, as the fall registered varies from 108 inches (in Tiruvallúr in 1872) to 20 inches, the normal fall in some *táluks*. In 1846, 20 inches of rain fell in as many hours, and the whole District was flooded. Chengalpat is said to be healthy, and the mortuary returns give an annual death-rate of 23 per thousand. But epidemic cholera has been frequent, and, in 1875-76, caused in Conjevaram alone 1067 deaths out of 1577 cases. Ague is endemic, and small-pox, ophthalmia, and deafness are very common.

Chengalpat (*Chingleput*).—*Táluk* of Chengalpat District, Madras. Area, 479 square miles; houses, 19,542; pop. (1871), 132,328, or 276 persons per square mile, and nearly 7 per house. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1871, 128,372 Hindus (including 69,606 Sivaites and 58,763 Vaishnavs), 3167 Muhammadans (including 11 Wahábís), and 789 Christians.

Chengalpat (*Chingleput*, 'The brick town').—Chief town of the *táluk* of the same name, Chengalpat District, Madras. Lat. 12° 42′ 1″ N.,

long. 80° 1′ 13″ E.; houses, 1082; pop. (1871), 7979. Situated on the extension line of the South Indian Railway, 36 miles south-west of Madras. As the seat of the District Sessions, and the headquarters of the *táluk*, it contains the District judge's and sub-magistrate's courts, jail, dispensary, school, post office, etc. The Roman Catholic and Free Churches have established missions here. The historical interest of Chengalpat centres in its fort. This stronghold was erected about the end of the 16th century, when the Vijáyanagar Rájás, fallen from their original power, held their court alternately here and at Chandragiri. The workmanship proves it to be of Hindu origin, and the site selected must have rendered it impregnable in the past. On three sides lie a lake and swamps; the fourth, naturally weak, is strongly defended by a double line of fortifications. Although now by modern artillery commanded on all sides, it has always been considered one of the keys of the Presidency city. About 1644, the fort passed into the hands of the Golconda chiefs, by whom it was surrendered to the Nawábs of Arcot, who in turn gave it up in 1751 to Chánda Sáhib, when, assisted by the French, he invaded the Karnatic. In 1752, Clive bombarded it, compelling the French garrison to surrender; and throughout the campaign it continued of the first importance to the British—now as a place of confinement for the French prisoners, now as a depôt for war material, and again as a centre for petty operations against the turbulent Poligárs of the surrounding country. After the reduction of Fort St. David, the Madras Government, apprehensive of an attack on Madras, called in all the garrisons and stores from outlying forts; and the stronghold of Chengalpat was thus actually abandoned in 1758. Considerations of its importance soon, however, persuaded our Government to re-occupy it, and while the French were advancing from the south, a strong garrison was thrown into it from Madras. Lally arrived just too late, and, finding it impregnable except by regular siege, made the mistake of leaving it in his rear, and passed on to Madras. During the siege that followed, the garrison of Chengalpat rendered invaluable assistance, not only by securing the country north of the Pálár, but by sallying out with disastrous effect upon the rear of the investing enemy. In 1780, the British force, after the destruction of General Baillie's column, found refuge here; and during the wars with Mysore, this fortress was once taken by the enemy, re-occupied by the British, and twice unsuccessfully besieged. It was from the Poligár or Nayakkan of Chengalpat that the British originally obtained permission, in 1639, to build the town of Madras.

Chengama (*Tingrecotta* or *Singaricotta*).—A pass connecting the Districts of Salem and South Arcot, Madras. Lat. 12° 21′ to 12° 23′ 45″ N., long. 78° 50′ to 78° 52′ 45″ E. As the direct route to the Báramahál

from the Karnatic, it has been the scene of several important events. In 1760, Makdum Alí entered the Karnatic by this pass; and here, in 1767, Haidar Alí, pursuing the British in their retreat on Trinomalái, received a severe defeat. Two years later, the Mysore army retreated by the Chengama, and in 1780 returned through it to destroy General Baillie's column. In 1791, Tipú led off his forces—the last army that invaded the British Karnatic—by the same route.

Chennagiri.—*Táluk* and village in Shimoga District, Mysore.—*See* CHANNAGIRI.

Chepauk.—A quarter of MADRAS TOWN.

Chera (or *Kerála*).—The ancient name for the southern division of Dravida, the present Madras Presidency. Within historic times, Kerála and Chera were so far distinct that the former name applied only to the coast or Malayálam country; while Chera represented roughly the Tamil country of Coimbatore and Salem, with parts of Mysore, Tinnevelli, and Travancore. This tract, with Chola and Pándya, formed the three great southern kingdoms, the confines of which met in the neighbourhood of Karúr. Probably the larger country was at different periods broken up into two divisions, the coast and the inland, which again united under the old name, provincialisms in language giving rise to the various pronunciations—Sera, Seram, Cheram, Keram, Cheralam, Keralam—that have obtained. Tradition supports this theory. Chera, Chola, and Pándya were, it is said, three brothers who ruled jointly at Kolkei on the Támrapúrni, a river in Tinnevelli, on whose banks civilisation in Southern India seems to have found one of its first homes. Eventually, the brothers separated, Pándya remaining at Kolkei, and Chera and Chola going forth and founding kingdoms of their own to the north and west. The date of the origin of the Chera dynasty has been variously fixed between the 1st and 5th centuries A.D., but writers agree in assigning to the commencement of the 10th century the absorption of Chera by its neighbour Chola. To the Chola dynasty succeeded the rule of the Madura *náiks*, and to them the Ballála kings of Mysore. Still later, a portion of the country passed nominally under the power of Vijáyanagar; but the eastern division was still included in the territories of the Madura *náiks* early in the 17th century. Part of it was overrun by the Mysore troops during the reign of Tirumala Náik, and subsequently by Haidar Alí. The old Sanskrit name, Kerála, is usually applied only to the coast division of the kingdom under notice; but there can be little doubt that originally Kerála and Chera were the same country, for the words are still synonymous in Tamil and Malayálam. Moreover, in the demarcation of Chera given by the Tamil writers, the Malabar coast, from Calicut southward (the whole, that is, of Southern Kerála) is invariably included. Probably Kerá was the earliest form of the word, and Kerála a Sanskrit

derivative. The name Kongu, also given to Chera, means, like Kudagu (Coorg), 'crooked,' and is evidently descriptive of the configuration of the country.—*See* also CHOLA.

Cherakal.—*Táluk* in Malabar District, Madras. Houses, 50,480. Pop. (1871), 257,377, including 197,335 Hindus, of whom 98 per cent. are Sivaites; 53,963 Muhammadans, all Sunnis; 6015 Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics; 17 Buddhists. Chief town, CANNANORE.

Cherakal.—Township (*amsham*, or 'town with hamlets') in the Cherakal *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras; situated 3 miles north of Cannanore, in lat. 11° 54′ N., and long. 75° 29′ E. Houses, 1425; pop. (1871), 7579. Formerly headquarters of the *táluk*, and still containing the Malabar central jail. It was by grant from the Cherakal or Kálahasti (Calastri) Rájá, whose descendant still lives in the neighbourhood, that the British first obtained a permanent footing at Tellicherri.

Cheránd.—Village in Sáran District, Bengal; situated on the main stream of the Ganges, 7 miles east of Chaprá, in lat. 25° 43′ 41″ N., long. 84° 52′ 10″ E. Contains the remains of an old fort, the history of which is unknown, and a ruined mosque.

Cherát.—Hill cantonment and sanitarium in Peshâwar District, Punjab; lies in lat. 33° 50′ 0″ N., and long. 72° 1′ 0″ E., at an elevation of 4500 feet above sea level, on the west of the Khatak range, which divides the Districts of Peshâwar and Kohát; distant from Peshâwar 34 miles south-east, from Nowshera (Naushahra) 25 miles south-west. The site was first brought to notice in 1853 by Major Coke, who observed it during the exploration of the Núr Kalán route to Kohát; but some years passed before active steps were taken for its occupation, owing to the fear of political complications with the surrounding Afrídi tribes. In 1861, a temporary camp, established during the autumn months, proved a complete success; and since that time, troops have been annually moved up with great benefit to their health. Even in the hottest seasons, the temperature seldom exceeds 80° F. The water supply comes from a spring at Sapári, nearly 3 miles distant; estimated outflow, 20,000 gallons per diem in the driest season of the year.

Cherpalcheri.—Town in Malabar District, Madras; situated 10 miles from the Patámbi railway station, in lat. 10° 53′ N., long. 76° 22′ 20″ E. Houses, 653; pop. (1871), 4266. Formerly (1792-1800) the station of the Southern Superintendent under Bombay, and (1860) the headquarters of the Wallavanád *táluk*. Contains a sub-magisterial establishment, post office, travellers' bungalow, etc. It was annexed to Mysore in 1766, and was the scene of troubles with the Zamorin's family in 1790.

Cherrá (or *Sohrah*).—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop.

(1872), 8060; revenue, £865, chiefly from market dues. The presiding chief, whose title is *Siem*, is named U Hájan Mánik. The principal products of the State are—cotton, oranges, honey, bamboo mats, lime, and coal.

Cherra Poonjee (*Chárá Punjí*).—British Station in the Khási Hills District, Assam; about 30 miles south of Shillong, and 4588 feet above sea level. Lat. 25° 15′ 58″ N., long. 91° 46′ 42″ E.; pop. (1872), 443. Situated near the boundary of Sylhet District, and in the midst of the lime-yielding strata, Cherra Poonjee was early chosen as the residence of the chief British official in the Khási Hills. The administrative headquarters of the District were removed to Shillong in 1864; but Cherra Poonjee, or Cherra, as it is familiarly called, still remains the centre of operations of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission. This mission first established itself in the hills in 1841, and has done much to spread both education and Christianity among the Khásiás. The entire management of education in the District is placed in the hands of the missionaries. The normal school at Cherra, under the control of the Rev. Hugh Roberts and his wife, was attended in 1874-75 by 43 Khási pupils, of whom 10 were girls. The total cost was £425, almost entirely paid by Government. In some of the valleys below Cherra Poonjee are extensive lime quarries, along the banks of the hill streams, which have been worked for many years, and supply the greater part of Bengal with limestone and lime. The stone is conveyed down the hill streams to Chhátak on the Surmá river, in Sylhet District, there to be shipped in larger boats. Coal is also found over an area estimated at one-third of a square mile, with an average thickness of from 3 feet 6 inches to 4 feet; the possible output is calculated at 447,000 tons. The mineral is of excellent quality, being little inferior to ordinary English coal; but it has never yet been profitably worked. The British Government holds a perpetual lease of the coal strata from the native chief or *siem*, on payment of a royalty. Between 1844 and 1859, sub-leases were granted to a succession of British capitalists, and during two years of that period the mine was regularly worked; but since 1859, this mine, like most of the others in the Khási Hills, has remained untouched. The oranges with which Calcutta is supplied grow on the slopes of the Cherra Hills, and potatoes are also largely cultivated. Cherra Poonjee enjoys the reputation of having the heaviest known rainfall in the world. The registered fall during the three years ending 1876 shows an annual average of 368·41 inches. It is reported that a total of 805 inches fell in 1861, of which 366 inches are assigned to the single month of July. This excessive rainfall is caused by the circumstance, that Cherra Poonjee stands on the first of a series of hill ranges that rise abruptly from the plain of Bengal, and catch the vapour of all the clouds that roll up from the sea. The climate is not unhealthy for

get in. Above the bar there is no want of water, and the river is navigable by sea-going craft as far as Mahádaní, 9 miles from the sea in a direct line. The exports consist almost entirely of rice and paddy; there are no imports.

Chhátak.—Village on the left bank of the Surmá river, in Sylhet District, Assam; 35 miles below Sylhet town. Lat. 25° 2′ 10″ N., long. 91° 42′ 20″ E. A thriving seat of river traffic, where the limestone, oranges, and potatoes of the Khási Hills are collected for shipment to Bengal. The articles received in exchange comprise cotton goods, salt, sugar, rice, pulses, and hardware. In 1876-77, the registered consignments of piece-goods from Bengal were valued at £52,500. The *tháná* or police circle of Chhátak has a population (1872) of 205,053.

Chhatarpur.—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It lies to the south of Hamírpur District, bordered by the Dhásan and Ken rivers, between 24° 21′ and 25° 16′ N. lat., and between 79° 37′ and 80° 28′ E. long.; area, 1240 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 170,000; revenue, about £25,000. The founder of the present line of chiefs was a man of low origin, who had in the days of Marhattá disturbance dispossessed the descendant of Chhatar Sál. On the British occupation of the Province in 1804, his submission was secured by the guarantee of his possessions. He received *sanads* to that effect in 1806 and 1808; and it is under these charters, and one of like import in 1817, that the estate is held. The chief received the title of Rájá in 1827. The present ruler is Rájá Bishen Náth Sinh, a Puár Rájput by caste, who was born in 1867. During his minority, Chaubi Chubi Dhanpat Rái, a Deputy Collector in the North-Western Provinces, was appointed to superintend the State. He died in 1876. The Rájá keeps up a military force of 62 horse and 1178 infantry and police, with 32 guns and 38 gunners. He receives a salute of 11 guns.

Chhatarpur.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Bundelkhand, Central India Agency; situated in lat. 24° 54′ N., long. 79° 38′ E., on the route from Bánda to Ságar (Saugor), 70 miles south-west of the former and 100 miles north-east of the latter. It is a thriving place, having manufactures of paper and coarse cutlery made from iron mined from the adjacent hills. The most striking architectural objects are the ruins of the extensive palace of Chhatar Sál, the founder of the short-lived independence of Bundelkhand, in whose honour the town received its name.

Chhatísgarh.—The south-eastern Division or Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 1′ 0″ and 22° 33′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 28′ 0″ and 84° 24′ 0″ E. long. Comprises the Districts of RAIPUR, BILASPUR, and SAMBALPUR; the first two constitute Chhatísgarh Proper.—See *ante*, p. 364, for the Chamárs of Chhatísgarh.

Chhatuá.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 33′ 30″ N., long. 84° 35′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 5402.

Chhibramau. — *Tahsíl* of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 243 square miles, of which 166 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 238,638; land revenue, £20,080; total Government revenue, £23,223; rental paid by cultivators, £35,547; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 7⅛d. per acre.

Chhindwára.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 28′ and 22° 50′ N. lat., and between 77° 57′ and 79° 37′ E. long. Bounded on the north and north-west by Narsinhpur and Hoshangábád, on the west by Betúl, on the east by Seoni, and on the south by Nágpur, while its south-western corner touches Berar. Area, after latest changes (1878), 3853 square miles; population in 1872, 316,095. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at CHHINDWARA, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—Chhindwára naturally divides itself into a high-land and a lowland region, the former of which, under the name of the Bálághát, occupies the greater part of the District. The Bálághát consists of a section of the Sátpura range, extending northward to the outer line of hills south of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley. It rests for the most part upon the great basaltic formation, which stretches up from the south-west across the Sátpura Hills, as far east as Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). The highest of these ranges starts from the confines of the Harái *jágír*, and continues westward across the District, with a mean breadth of 8 miles. Its only approaches are by ascending passes, difficult on the north, but much easier on the other side. A beautiful valley skirts the southern base, and is again divided by an ill-defined range of hills from a tract of broken country, through which lies the descent to the plain of Nágpur. The average height of the Bálághát is 2000 feet above sea level. The Zerághát, or lowland region, comprises three *parganás* in the south-west angle of the District, touching upon Nágpur and Berar; and extends in an open and undulating country. In many parts of the uplands, the scene for miles is bare of trees; but the southern slopes of the Sátpuras are rich in magnificent timber. Teak, *sáj*, *shísham*, and *kawá* abound in these luxuriant forests; along the streams which intersect the country, of which the Kanhán is the most considerable, lie strips and patches of jungle, while the villages are often surrounded with groves of mango and tamarind trees. At Maháljhír, on the east of the Mahádeo Hills, a spring of hot water gushes from the ground. Trap covers the greater part of the District, resting in the south directly on the plutonic rocks, and in the north on sandstone. It encloses an alluvial deposit, which at Butáriá to the east, and at Mislánwára to the south of

Chhindwára, and at other places, yields remains of the Eocene period. The soil is generally black where it overlies the trap, and red where it rests on sandstone or plutonic rocks. The only important mineral product of Chhindwára is coal. The coal-field at Barkoí, the oldest known in the District, has been experimentally worked for some years; but the high cost of carriage has prevented success. It contains two seams, of which the upper one alone has been explored. This will yield over 5 feet of coal, with heating qualities equal to two-thirds of the best Welsh coal. Four miles west of Sirgori, a fine seam occurs in the bed of the Pench river; but whether it extends to the north, beneath the trap in the river, has not yet been ascertained. Coal has been found in many other parts of the District; but the places above named appear the most likely to prove suited for mining purposes. Wild beasts abound in Chhindwára. The tiger, the panther, and the bear, sometimes also the hyæna, prove destructive to human life; while flocks and herds often fall a prey to the hunting cheetah, the wild dog, and the wolf. The crops suffer from the ravages of the wild boar and many kinds of deer. The numerous foxes, jackals, and lynxes keep down the small game in this District; but there are hares, partridges, and quails for the sportsman; and in the cold season, snipe, wild-fowl, and *kulang* visit Chhindwára. In the Khamárpání jungles, and among the Sátpura Hills, the bison may also be found.

History.—The midland Gond kingdom of Deogarh had its capital in this District. Its founder, Játbá, subverted the ancient Gaulí power above the *gháts*; and his descendants continued to rule until the advent of the Marhattás. None of them, however, made any name in history before Bakht Buland, who visited Delhi, and purchased the protection of Aurangzeb by his timely conversion to the Muhammadan faith. This prince showed energy, both within and without his kingdom. He carried his arms southward beyond Nágpur, and made acquisitions from Chánda and from Mandla; while he invited settlers, both Muhammadan and Hindu, from all quarters into the country which he governed. The next Rájá, Chánd Sultán, resided principally at Nágpur. On his death, the struggles which arose from a contested succession were finally composed by the Marhattás; and by the middle of the 18th century, the sovereignty of the Gond Rájás became virtually extinct. The mountainous parts of the District have long been occupied by petty Gond or Kúrkú chiefs, who owned a feudal subjection, first to the Gond Rájás, and afterwards to the Marhattás; and although the Gonds welcomed and supported Apá Sáhib in his opposition to the English in 1819, the British Government has continued the policy of allowing the petty Rájás to retain their lands and rights as tributaries. On the death of Raghojí III., the whole District finally lapsed to the British Empire in 1854. Since then, in 1865, the *jágírs* of Almod, Pagára,

and Pachmarhi, in the Mahádeo Hills, with the magnificent forests of Borí and Denwá, have been transferred to Hoshangábád District.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Chhindwára at 327,875; and the latest estimate (1877) indicates a total of 332,218. The careful Census of 1872 forms, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the population. It disclosed a total of 316,095 persons, residing in 1723 villages or townships and 61,819 houses, on an area of 3916 square miles; persons per square mile, 80·72; villages per square mile, 0·44; houses per square mile, 15·79; persons per village, 183·46; persons per house, 5·11. Classified according to sex, the number of males was 159,116, and the number of females, 156,979. Classified according to age, the boys in 1877 numbered 69,187, and the girls, 66,343. Ethnical division of the people in 1877—Europeans, 26; aboriginal tribes, 119,814; Hindus, 201,448; Muhammadans, 10,244; Buddhists and Jains, 604. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds (109,469 in 1872); the remainder consisting of Bharias, Kúrkús, etc. Among Hindus, the Bráhmans numbered, in 1872, 6068; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of—Kunbís, 12,013; Telís, 10,655; Ahírs or Gaulís, 23,844; Bhoyars, 10,566; Dhers or Mhars, 27,790; and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 65. There are only 3 towns in Chhindwára District with a population exceeding 5000—viz. CHHINDWARA, the District headquarters (pop. 8626), LODHIKHERA (5219), and PANDHURNA (5218). Townships with from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 28; with from 200 to 1000, 396; villages with fewer than 200 inhabitants, 1296. The only municipalities are—Chhindwára, pop. (1877) within municipal limits, 9153; Lodhikhera, 5537; Mohgáon, 5325; and Pándhurna, 5536,—leaving 306,667 as forming the strictly rural population. The dialect generally prevailing in the Bálághát or highland part of the District is a mixture of Hindí and Marhathí; but the Gonds and Kúrkús use languages of their own.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3853 square miles, only 1109 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 502 are returned as cultivable; 7702 acres are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 9d. per acre of cultivated land, and 6½d. on the cultivable land. Wheat and inferior food grains constitute the principal crop, only 8719 acres in 1876 being devoted to rice. In the same year cotton was grown on 40,928 acres, and its cultivation continues steadily to increase. Potatoes were introduced in the beginning of the present century, and supply a food much appreciated by the natives. They may be seen exposed for sale in every village *bázár*; but the greater part of the produce is exported to Kámpthi (Kamptee). There are two great harvests in the year—the *kharíf*,

gathered between September and February, and the *rabi*, from February to the close of May. The crops depend entirely upon the seasons; no manure is used, and irrigation is only resorted to for sugar-cane. Rotation of crops is not practised. The rates of rent per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for rice, 2s. 4½d.; wheat, 2s.; inferior grains, 1s. 4½d.; cotton, 1s. 9d.; sugar-cane, 2s. Average produce per acre in lbs.:—Rice, 360; wheat, 400; inferior grains, 312; cotton, 60; raw sugar (*gúr*), 750. Average prices of produce per cwt.:—Rice, 9s.; wheat, 4s. 1d.; cotton, 49s.; sugar, 16s. 4d. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 2450 landed proprietors; the tenants numbered 35,912, of whom 9432 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 26,480 were tenants-at-will. The condition of the peasantry is fairly prosperous, and, except in the town of Mohgáon, there are very few beggars. The wages per diem for skilled labour average 1s. 3d., for unskilled labour, 4½d. The *parganá* of Khamárpáni produces the best breed of cattle for draught purposes. They are white, with no great bulk of body, and the dewlap is unusually large; they appear closely akin to the pure Guzerat breed, and quite distinct from what are locally called the Gond cattle, a smaller kind but famous as good milk-yielders.

Commerce and Trade.—The weaving of cotton cloth constitutes the only important manufacture in Chhindwára, giving employment in 1872 to 5371 persons. In Lodhíkhera and some other places, excellent brass and copper utensils are made. The village markets supply the means for carrying on trade within the District. In 1876, there were 160 miles of made roads. The only so-called imperial road, by which a little external traffic is carried on, runs between Chhindwára and Nágpur, descending into the low country by the Siláwáni *ghát*. The descent has been rendered easy; but from Rámákona to the limits of Chhindwára District, the line lies over a very difficult country, chiefly consisting of black cotton soil, cut up incessantly by water-courses with deep channels and muddy beds. The local roads are practicable during fine weather for wheeled conveyances; except that leading to Narsinhpur, where the natural difficulties are so great that the journey is rarely attempted except by camels, pack-bullocks, or buffaloes. The imperial line has *dák* bungalows at Rámákona and Chhindwára; the Betúl road, at Umreth and Bordehí; and the road between Betúl and Nágpur, at Pándhurna. There are *saráis* at Rámákona, Lodhíkhera, Sausar, and Chhindwára.

Administration.—In 1854, Chhindwára was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1876-77, £33,894; of which the land revenue yielded £21,856. Total cost of District officials and police of

all kinds, £9483. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 5; magistrates, 7. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 64 miles; average distance, 29. Number of police, 380, costing £5186, being one policeman to every 10 square miles and to every 735 of the population. Daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876, 71·32, of whom 5·47 were females; total expenditure on the jails in that year, £657. The number of Government or aided schools in the District in 1876 was 51, attended by 1979 pupils, showing an increase since 1869 of 20 schools and 667 pupils. The income of the municipalities in 1876-77 was—Chhindwára, £494, of which £492 were derived from taxation, being at the rate of 1s. per head; Lodhíkhera, £457, of which £414 was derived from taxation, being 1s. 6d. per head; Mohgáon, £72, £67 from taxation, being 3d. per head; and Pándhurna, £122, £112 from taxation, being 5d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate above the *gháts* is temperate and healthy. In the cold season, frost is not uncommon, and ice is frequently seen in the small tanks at an elevation of about 2000 feet. Before May, the hot wind causes little annoyance, and during the rains the weather is cool and agreeable. In 1876, the rainfall amounted to 40·72 inches, being slightly above the average. The number of deaths registered during the same year was 6719, of which fevers caused 4041. The mean ratio of deaths per 1000 of the population during the preceding five years had been only 23·82; but in 1876, it rose to 27·30. Two charitable dispensaries during that year afforded medical relief to 8845 in-door and out-door patients.

Chhindwára.—Northern Revenue Subdivision or *tahsíl* in the District of the same name, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 216,585, dwelling in 1364 townships or villages and 41,713 houses; area, 2828 square miles; land revenue, £11,654; total revenue, £12,248.

Chhindwára.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of the District of the same name, Central Provinces. Lat. 22° 3′ 30″ N., long. 78° 59′ E. Situated on a dry, gravelly soil, 2200 feet above sea level, and surrounded by ranges of low hills, with a belt of cultivated fields and mango groves between. The supply of water is plentiful, the best coming from the wells outside the town; and European visitors from Nágpur and Kámthi (Kamptee) frequent Chhindwára during the hot weather. Population (1872), 8626; within municipal limits (1876), 9153. Municipal income (1876), £494; rate of taxation, 1s. per head. The station extends for nearly 2 miles, and is in parts well wooded. It has a public garden, and District court-house, Deputy-Commissioner's circuit house, jail, *tahsíli* and police station, charitable dispensary, Free Church mission, native school, poorhouse, and *sarái*.

Chhipia.—Small village in Gondá District, Oudh. Lat. 22° 3′

30″ N., long. 78° 59′ 0″ E. Of no commercial importance, and only noticeable for its handsome temple, erected in honour of a celebrated Vishnuvite religious reformer in Western India, named Sahájanand, who was born in this village about a century ago, and ultimately succeeded to the headship of the great Vishnuvite monastery at Junágarh. His followers claim for him divine honours as an incarnation of Krishna, and worship him under the title of Swámi Náráyan. His descendants are still at the head of the sect. About thirty years ago, the sect which he had founded in Guzerat determined to erect a temple at his birthplace, the whole of the works of which are not yet completed. The fane itself is entirely of stone and marble, imported from Mírzápur and Jáipur (Jeypore). It is to be surrounded on three sides by charitable buildings, for the convenience of travellers and the accommodation of the members of the order. The north side is already finished, and consists of a row of double-storied brick houses, with a fine wooden verandah, carved and painted. The unfinished buildings to the front are broken by a handsome stone arch 20 feet high, and closed by a strong iron door, imported from Guzerat. Behind the temple is a large *bázár*, and two square brick houses, with turrets at each corner, for the accommodation of the spiritual chiefs of the order. Two large fairs are held here annually, on the occasion of the Rám-námi festival, and at the full moon of Kártik. Throughout the year, pilgrims of all classes of society, and from the most distant parts of India, visit the birthplace of their deified leader.

Chholá.—Lofty range of the Himálayas, forming the eastern boundary of Sikkim, and separating it from Bhután. It runs south from the immense mountain of Dankiá (23,176 feet), situated 50 miles east-north-east of Kánchanjangá, and is, throughout its length, much higher than the parallel SINGALILA range, which forms the western boundary between Sikkim and Nepál.

Chhotá Bhágirathí. — A branch of the Ganges in Maldah District, Bengal. Only navigable during the rains, and almost dry in the hot season. It is, however, presumably the old bed of the great river itself, and is still revered as at least equal in holiness to any other part of the sacred stream. The course of the Chhotá Bhágirathí is first east and then south, bordering for 13 miles the ruins of the city of Gaur. It eventually falls into the Páglá or Páglí, a larger offshoot of the Ganges, given off farther down, and before regaining the parent stream it encloses an extensive island, 16 miles in length.

Chhota Nágpur. — Division or Commissionership, Bengal. — *See* CHUTIA NAGPUR.

Chhotá Sinchulá (or *Tchinchulá*).—Peak in the Sinchulá or Tchinchulá range, Jalpáiguri District, Bengal, separating British and Bhután territory. Elevation, 5695 feet above sea level.

Chhota Udáipur.—Tributary State within the Political Agency of Rewá Kánta, in the Province of Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay, lying between 22° 2′ and 22° 32′ N. lat., and between 73° 47′ and 74° 20′ E. long. Bounded north by the State of Báriya, east by Alí Rájpur, south by petty States in the Sánkheri Mewás, and west by the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda. Estimated area, 873 square miles; pop. (1872), 62,913, of whom 86 per cent. are Bhíls or Kolís; gross revenue, £30,000. The river Orsing runs through the State, dividing it into two nearly equal portions; the Narbadá (Nerbudda) washes its southern boundary for a few miles. The country is hilly, and overgrown with forest. During the greater part of the year, the climate is damp and unhealthy, and fever is prevalent. Cereals and timber are the chief produce. There are no manufactures or mines. The principal exports are timber and the flowers of the *mahuá* tree (Bassia latifolia). The family of the chief are Chauhán Rájputs, who, when driven out of their former territories by the advance of the Musalmáns about the year A.D. 1244, entered Guzerat, and took possession of Chámpáner city and fort. On the capture of Chámpáner in 1484 by Muhammad Begár, they withdrew to the wilder parts of their former possessions to the east of the city, one branch of them founding the State of Báriya, and the other the State of Chhota Udáipur. In the disturbances of 1858, the chief refused to hold any communication with Tántiá Topi, one of the leaders of the rebellion, and prepared to defend himself against any attempt to enter his capital. It was when encamped before the town of Chhota Udáipur that Tántiá Topi was defeated by General Parke. The present (1875) chief, Jitsinhji by name, bears the title of Mahárávál. He is forty-three years of age. His house follows the rule of primogeniture, but holds no *sanad* of adoption. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and maintains a military force of 320 undisciplined men, who are employed for police and revenue purposes. He has power to try his own subjects only for capital offences. Out of the total revenue of £30,000, a tribute of £1050 is yearly payable to the Gáekwár of Baroda, the amount being collected by the British Government. The family moved at one time to Mohan, a most advantageous position for commanding the passes, and built a fort there. Hence the State is sometimes called Mohan. But they gave up this place, as capital, for Chhota Udáipur. It was probably in consequence of the defenceless position of the latter town, that they became tributary to the Gáekwár. The political control has since 1822 been transferred to the British Government. The main route from Málwá to Baroda and the sea passes through the territory.

Chhota Udáipur.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Guzerat, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency; situated on the main road from Baroda to Mhow (Mhau), about 50 miles east of Baroda, 115 miles west of Mhow, 105 miles south-east of Ahmed-

ábád, and 110 miles north-east of Surat; in 22° 20′ N. lat., and 74° 1′ E. long.

Chhuikhadán (or *Kondka*).—Petty State in the Central Provinces. —*See* KONDKA.

Chhúrí.—Chiefship in the north-east of Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1870), 13,281, dwelling in 120 villages; area, 320 square miles, of which 27,907 acres were cultivated, and 48,538 acres cultivable. The chief is a Kunwár.

Chicacole (*Chikakol, Srikákulam*).—*Táluk* of Ganjám District, Madras. Houses, 33,689; pop. (1871), 169,094, being 167,696 Hindus (nearly all Vaishnavs), 1276 Muhammadans, and 122 Christians. Formerly the central division of the ancient Buddhist and Hindu kingdoms of Kalinga (Kielingkia of Hiouen Thsang), and containing the capital of the Mughal 'circar' (*sarkár*) of Chicacole. For many years after the nominal conquest of the 'Northern Circars' by the Muhammadan invaders, the Reddi, or Gajapati, held these lands in semi-independence; and though in the 16th century the 'circar' of Chicacole came under the Kutab-Sháhi rule, and their governors resided in the town, it was not until the rise of the Nawábs of Arcot, in the 18th century, that Hindu influence finally succumbed. With the rest of the 'Northern Circars,' it was assigned to the French in 1753, and to the British in 1766. Under Muhammadan rule, Chicacole was divided into the three divisions of Ichápur, Kasímkota, and Chicacole. The last two, on British occupation, became parts of Vizagapatam District, the demesne lands 'Chikakor-havili' being leased out to the Rájá of Vijáyanagar till 1787, when they came under direct administration. In 1802, Chicacole was transferred to Ganjám. North of the town of Chicacole, the country is open, level, and well watered, studded with groves and marked by stretches of rice lands; to the south, the soil is dry and rocky, bearing traces of iron and interspersed with granite boulders.

Chicacole (*Chikakol, Srikákulam*).—Municipal town in the Chicacole *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras; situated 4 miles from the sea on the Languliyá or Nágula river (here bridged), and on the Grand Trunk Road, 567 miles north-east of Madras. Lat. 18° 17′ 25″ N., long. 83° 56′ 25″ E.; houses, 3929; pop. (1871), 15,587, being 14,566 Hindus, 948 Muhammadans, and 73 Christians and 'others.' Twenty per cent. of the population are traders; and eight per cent. muslin-weavers, the manufactures of Chicacole rivalling in delicacy of texture the muslins of Dacca or Arni. The municipal revenue averages £1400 per annum, the incidence of local taxation being about 4d. per head of the rateable population. For many years considered an important military station; for a time (in 1815), the civil headquarters of the District; and, until 1865, the sessions station of the District judge. As the headquarters of the *táluk*,

it now contains subordinate revenue, judicial, and magisterial establishments; jail, dispensary, District post and telegraph offices, schools, and hospital. Most of the public buildings are situated within the ditch of the old fort, to the south of which lies the native town, a straggling, cramped collection of houses, but containing many mosques, notably that of Sher Muhammad Khán (1641), to bear witness to the importance of the old city under its Muhammadan rulers. In 1791, Chicacole was nearly depopulated by famine, and it again suffered severely from scarcity in 1866. In 1876, a flood threatened it with utter destruction, and swept away six arches of the Languliyá bridge. The native names of the place are (Hindu) Sríkákulam or Sríkákuli-Sivara, a name of Siva; and (Muhammadan) Mahfúz Bandar, after the small port so called at the mouth of the river. It was also once called Gúlchanabad, the 'happy rose garden.' The name Chicacole (Sríkákulam) has been erroneously derived from *sikka*, a seal, and *kolna*, to open, as the letter-bags from Golgonda to the 'Northern Circars' used to be opened here for distribution.—*See* 'NORTHERN CIRCARS.'

Chicacole (*Chikakol, Sríkákulam*).—River in Madras.—*See* LANGULIYA.

Chicháli.—Mountains in the Punjab.—*See* MAIDANI.

Chichgarh. — Extensive but poor estate near the south-eastern borders of Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1870), 8371, chiefly Halbás (to which caste the chief belongs), Gonds, and Goálás; area, 237 square miles, of which only 22 are cultivated. The forests abound in valuable timber, especially teak. Each of the two chief villages, Chichgarh and Pálandúr, possesses an indigenous school; and the former has a Government police post. One of the main District roads passes through this chiefship by a formidable pass near Chichgarh, more than 3 miles in length, bordered by dense bamboo jungle. At the foot of the pass the chief has dug a well and built a *sarái*.

Chidambaram (*Chilambaram*).—*Táluk* in the South Arcot District, Madras. Area, 251,663 acres (393 square miles), of which 191,819 acres are cultivated; pop. (1871), 239,133, including 224,504 Hindus, 10,255 Muhammadans (all Sunnis), and 4326 Christians (chiefly Roman Catholics); land revenue (1874-75), £66,893. Chief towns, Chidambaram and Porto Novo.

Chidambaram (*Chilambaram*).—Municipality in Chidambaram *táluk*, South Arcot, Madras; 7 miles from the coast and 25 miles south of Cuddalore. Lat. 11° 24′ 9″ N., long. 79° 44′ 7″ E.; houses, 2974; pop. (1871), 15,519. As the headquarters of the *táluk*, it contains subordinate revenue, judicial, and police establishments; post office, travellers' bungalow, etc. The weaving of silk and cotton cloth occupies 27 per cent. of the total adult population. In December, a great fair is held,

attracting from 60,000 to 80,000 pilgrims and traders. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £1098; incidence of taxation on the rateable population, about 2s. per head. During the wars of the Karnatic, Chidambaram was considered a point of considerable strategical importance. In 1749, the ill-fated expedition against Devikotá made a stand here in its retreat, and here, in the following year, the armies of Murári Ráo and Muzaffar Jang first met. In 1753, the British garrison was compelled to evacuate Chidambaram by the French, and the muster of the French and Marhattá forces for the campaign of the following year was held at this town. An attempt by the British to take the place in 1759 failed. In 1760, the French surrendered it to Haidar Alí, who strengthened the fortifications and garrisoned the town; and when Sir Eyre Coote attacked Chidambaram in 1781, he was driven off with loss. But it is for its temples, held in the highest reverence throughout Southern India and Ceylon, that Chidambaram is chiefly celebrated. The principal of these is the Sabhanaiken Kovil or Kanak Sabhá (golden shrine), sacred to Siva and his wife Párvatí. Tradition asserts that the earliest portions of this splendid structure were built by Hiranya Varna Chakrasti, 'the golden coloured king,' who was here cured of leprosy; and as this name occurs in the *Chronicles of Kashmir* as that of a king who conquered Ceylon, some writers are of opinion that this temple is really the work of a Kashmír prince of the 5th century. He is said to have brought 3000 Bráhmans with him from the north; and to this day the temple belongs to some 200 families of a peculiar sect of Bráhmans, distinct from all other Bráhmans of the District, called Díkshatars. In the 8th century, Pandya Vachakka defeated the Bandd'has of Ceylon in an attempt upon the temple; and between the 10th and 17th centuries, the Chola and Chera Rájás made many additions to the building. It now covers 39 acres of ground. Two walls, each 30 feet in height, surround it; and at each of the four corners stands a solid *gopuram* or pyramid 122 feet in height, based with granite blocks 40 feet in length and 5 feet thick, covered with copper. The principal court, called 'the hall of a thousand pillars' (though really containing only 936), presents a magnificent appearance. In the centre, is the shrine of Párvatí, a most beautiful building, containing a golden canopy, with superb fringes of bullion; and also the sanctuary, a copper-roofed enclosure, remarkable for its ugliness. Opposite to it, stands the Miratha Sabhá, pronounced by some writers the most perfect gem of art in Southern India. Besides these there are other *sabhas*, or halls; a Vishnu temple; a Pillyar temple, containing the largest belly-god in India; a remarkable tank, the Sivagangá or Hemapashkarani (golden tank), 50 yards square and 40 feet across, surrounded on all sides with spacious flights of steps; and four excellent wells, one of them built of granite rings placed one on the

other, each ring cut from a single block. To appreciate the labour bestowed upon this extraordinary temple, it must be remembered that the greater part of it is of granite—with many monoliths 40 feet high, and over 1000 pillars (all monoliths, and none less than 26 feet in height) —and that the nearest quarry is 40 miles distant.

Chikakol.—*Táluk* and town, Ganjám District, Madras. —*See* CHICACOLE.

Chikalda.—Village and sanitarium in the Melghát *táluk*, Ellichpur District, Berar; situated in lat. 21° 24′ N. and long. 77° 22′ E., on a plateau (about a mile in length and three-quarters of a mile broad) 3777 feet above the sea; distant about a mile and a half from Gáwilgarh fort, and about 20 miles from Ellichpur. The usual road from the latter place winds up the western side of the Gáwilgarh Hill. The ascent is for the most part easy, and can be made on horseback. Supplies and baggage are brought up by bullocks or camels. Chikalda has been a favourite Berar sanitarium since 1839, when the first bungalows were built on the plateau. All the Europeans of the Melghát live here, and the climate after August is equable, cool, and bracing; mean temperature, 71° F., varying from 59° in the coldest to 83° in the hottest months. The scenery is beautiful, and the vegetation luxuriant and varied in character—roses, clematis, orchids, ferns, and lilies succeeding each other with the changing seasons. Excellent potatoes are grown, and the tea-plant flourishes.

Chikati.—Estate in Ganjám District, Madras. Number of houses, 11,913; pop. (1871), 40,684, of whom all but 36 are Hindus. Chief place, Chikati.

Chikballapur.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Area, 379 square miles; pop. (1871), 69,177; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £9288, or 3s. 5d. per cultivated acre.

Chikballapur.—Municipal town in Kolár District, Mysore; 36 miles by road north-west of Kolár. Lat. 13° 26′ 10″ N., long. 77° 46′ 21″ E.; pop. (1871), 9882, of whom 649 are Muhammadans, and 76 Christians; municipal revenue, £132; rate of taxation, 3d. per head. The fort was erected about 1479 by Malla Baire Gauda, the youngest of the band of refugees of the Morasu Wokkal tribe, who founded dynasties of Poligárs throughout Mysore during the 14th century. His descendants extended their dominions, and maintained their independence against the rising power of the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. Haidar Alí, however, in 1761 captured both Chikballapur and the hill fort of Nandidrúg (Nundydroog), and sent the last of the Gaudas prisoner to Coimbatore. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Chik Devaráj Ságar.—Small canal, and scene of a fair in Mysore District, Mysore.—*See* CHUNCHANKATTE.

Chikhli (*Chikoli*).—One of the petty Bhíl (Bheel) States of Khandesh,

Bombay; situated between the Tápti river and the Sátpura range. Estimated pop. (1875), 701, of whom 363 were males and 338 females; all Bheels. Their language is a mixture of Guzerathí, Marathí, and Hindustání. Near the Tápti, the soil is good; but the greater part of the State is overgrown with jungle, and is consequently very unhealthy. The revenue is about £70 from land and grazing rents, and £300 assigned as a Government pension to an ancestor of the present chief. The Wasawa, or ruler, of Chikhli is one of the principal Mewási chiefs.

Chikmagalúr.—*Táluk* in Kádur District, Mysore. Area, 412 square miles; pop. (1871), 110,105; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £12,082, or 6s. 8d. per cultivated acre. The surface includes fertile valleys watered by perennial streams, and forest-clad mountains, on the slopes of which coffee is grown.

Chikmagalúr ('*Town of the Younger Daughter*').—Chief town of Kádur District, Mysore; 130 miles west-north-west of Bangalore. Lat. 13° 18' 15" N., long. 75° 49' 20" E.; pop. (1871), 2027, including 65 Muhammadans and 82 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £921; rate of taxation, 9s. per head. The headquarters of Kádur District were removed from Kádur town to Chikmagalúr in 1865, and the new station has since greatly increased in prosperity. The main *bázár* is a wide thoroughfare two miles long, and the weekly fair on Wednesdays is attended by 3000 people. The wants of the neighbouring coffee plantations have led to the settlement of several Musalmán traders. A wide belt of trees has been planted, to ward off the prevailing east winds. The country round is composed of the fertile black cotton soil. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Chiknáyakanhalli.—*Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore. Area, 455 square miles; pop. (1871), 56,882; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £8650, or 4s. 7d. per cultivated acre.

Chiknáyakanhalli.—Municipal town in Túmkúr District, Mysore; 40 miles west-north-west from Túmkúr town. Lat. 13° 25' 10" N., long. 76° 39' 40" E. Pop. (1871), 4504, including 225 Muhammadans; municipal revenue (1874-75), £60; rate of taxation, 3d. per head. Founded by Chikka Náyaka, a chief of the Havalgadi house; plundered in 1791 by the Marhattá general, Parasu Rám Bháo, while on his way to join Lord Cornwallis before Seringapatam, and is said to have yielded a booty of £50,000. Now a prosperous place, surrounded by groves of cocoa-nut and areca palms. Coarse cotton cloths, white and coloured, are manufactured. Many of the inhabitants are engaged in the carrying trade. There are 7 well-endowed temples. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Chikori.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Belgaum District, Bombay, lying 42 miles north-north-east of Belgaum, in lat. 16° 26' N., and long. 74° 38' E. Pop. (1872), 6184. Chikori is a

considerable entrepôt of trade between the interior and the coast, with which it has ready communication by a road from Nipáni over the Phondá Ghát. Ordinary cotton goods are manufactured chiefly for local use. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Chiliánwála.—Village in Guzerat District, Punjab, lying 5 miles from the eastern bank of the Jhelum (Jhílam); distant from Lahore 85 miles north-west, in lat. 32° 39′ 46″ N., long. 73° 38′ 52″ E. Celebrated as the site of a sanguinary battle in the second Síkh War. Lord Gough, after marching several days from the Chenáb, came in sight of the enemy near Chiliánwála on the afternoon of the 13th January 1849. While his men were engaged in taking ground for an encampment, a few shots from the Síkh horse artillery fell within his lines. The General thereupon gave the order for an immediate attack; and our forces moved rapidly forward through the thick jungle, in the face of masked batteries, which again and again opened a flank fire upon their unguarded line. Beaten back time after time, they still advanced upon the unseen enemy, until at last, by some misapprehension, a regiment of cavalry began to retreat in a somewhat disorderly manner. Although by this time our troops had taken some 15 or 16 of the enemy's guns, and our artillery had swept the Síkh line from end to end, the unfortunate panic amongst the cavalry, the loss of almost an entire British regiment (the 24th), and the approach of darkness combined to prevent our continuing the action. The Síkhs remained in possession of more than one British gun, besides holding some of our colours. At the end of the engagement, the British troops maintained their position, and the enemy retreated during the night. Our temporary loss of prestige was fully retrieved by the decisive battle of Gujrát, which placed the whole Punjab in the power of Lord Gough. An obelisk, erected upon the spot, commemorates the British officers and men who lost their lives upon the field. Chiliánwála is also identified by General Cunningham with the battle-field of Alexander and Porus after the passage of the river Jhelum.

Chilká Lake.—A shallow inland sea, situated in the south-east corner of Purí District, Orissa; and in the extreme south extending into the Madras District of Ganjám. Lat. 19° 28′ to 19° 56′ 15″ N., long. 85° 9′ to 85° 38′ 15″ E. A long sandy ridge, in places little more than 200 yards wide, separates it from the Bay of Bengal. On the west and south it is walled in by lofty hills; while to the northward it loses itself in endless shallows, sedgy banks, and islands just peeping above the surface, formed year by year from the silt which the rivers bring down. A single narrow mouth, cut through the sandy ridge, connects it with the sea. The lake spreads out into a pear-shaped expanse of water 44 miles long, of which the northern half has a mean breadth of about 20 miles, while the southern half tapers into an irregularly curved

point, barely averaging 5 miles wide. Smallest area, 344 square miles in the dry weather, increasing to about 450 during the rainy season. Average depth, from 3 to 5 feet, scarcely anywhere exceeding 6 feet. The bed of the lake is a very few feet below the high-water level of the sea, although in some parts it is slightly below low-water mark. The distant inner portion of the lake keeps about 2 feet higher than the exterior ocean at all stages of the tide. The narrow tidal stream, which rushes through the neck connecting the lake with the sea, suffices to keep the water distinctly salt during the dry months from December to June. But once the rains have set in, and the rivers come pouring down upon its northern extremity, the sea-water is gradually driven out, and the Chilká passes through various stages of brackishness until it becomes a fresh-water lake. This changeable inland sea forms one of a series of lacustrine formations down the western shores of the Bay of Bengal, the result of a perpetual war going on between the rivers and the sea—the former struggling to find vent for their water and silt, the latter repelling them with its sand-laden currents. The Chilká may be regarded as a gulf of the original Bay of Bengal. On the south, a bold, barren spur of hills runs down to the coast; on the north, the land-making rivers have pushed out their rounded mouths and flat deltas into the ocean. Nor has the sea been idle; but meeting and overmastering the languid river discharge that enters the Chilká, it has joined the two promontories with a bar of sand, and thus formed a lake. At this moment the delicate process of land-making from the river silt at the north-east end of the lake is slowly but steadily going on; while the bar-building sea busily plies its trade across its mouth. Old documents show that a century ago the neck of land was only from half a mile to a mile broad in places where it is now two miles. On the other hand, the opening in the bar, which was a mile wide in 1780, and had to be crossed in large boats, was described forty years later as choked up. Shortly before 1825, an artificial mouth had to be cut; and although this also rapidly began to silt up, it remained, as late as 1837, more than three times its present breadth. The villagers allege that it still grows narrower year by year; and the difficulty in maintaining an outlet from the Chilká forms one of the chief obstacles to utilizing the lake as an escapement for the floods that desolate the delta. Engineers report that although it would be easy and cheap to cut a channel, it would be very costly and difficult to keep it open; and that each successive mouth would speedily choke up and share the fate of its predecessors. The scenery of the Chilká is very varied, and in parts exceedingly picturesque. In the south and west, hill ranges bound its shores; and in this part it is dotted with a number of small rocky islands. Proceeding northwards, the lake expands into a majestic sheet of water. Half-way across is Nalbana,

literally 'the reed forest,' an island about 5 miles in circumference, scarcely anywhere rising more than a few inches above water level. This island is altogether uninhabited, but is regularly visited by parties of thatchers from the mainland, who cut the reeds and high grasses with which it is completely covered. On the eastern side of the lake lie the islands of Párikúd, with new silt formations behind, and now partially joined to the narrow ridge of land which separates the Chilká from the sea. At some places they emerge almost imperceptibly from the water; at others, they spread out into well-raised rice-fields. Their northern extremity slopes gracefully down to the lake like an English park, dotted with fine trees, and backed by noble masses of foliage. Water-fowl of all kinds are very abundant in every part of the lake. Salt-making is largely carried on in PARIKUD. Beyond the northern end of Párikúd, the lake gradually shallows until it becomes solid ground. At this point, the Purí rivers empty themselves into the lake, and the process of land-making is going on steadily. The northern shores of the Chilká comprise the *parganás* of Sirái and Chaubískud, and it is these tracts which have to bear the greatest suffering in times of general inundation in Purí. Until Ganjám was deserted, on account of its unhealthiness, the Chilká lake was during the hot months a frequent resort of Europeans from the Madras Presidency. At the southern extremity of the lake stands the populous and important village of RAMBHA, having an extensive trade in grain with Orissa, for which it gives salt in exchange. A steam launch plies between Rambhá and Burukudi on the Púri side, a distance of about 34 miles. The Chilká Canal, connecting the southern extremity of the lake with the Rushikulya river, is 7 miles in length, and navigable throughout the year. Large quantities of grain and salt are carried to and fro along it.

Chilmárí.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Brahmaputra river. Lat. 25° 27′ 20″ N., long. 89° 48′ 50″ E. Considerable export trade in rice, paddy, and jute.

Chimur.—*Parganá* in the north-west of Chánda District, Central Provinces, comprising 158 villages; area, 416 square miles. Hill and jungle cover the south and east. The soil is chiefly red, yellow, or sandy, with considerable tracts of black loam. Principal products—rice, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, wheat, cotton, gram, *joár*. Chief towns—Chimur, noted for its fine cotton cloth; lat. 20° 31′ N., long. 79° 25′ 30″ E.; Nerí, and Bhisí. At Jámbulgháta, a large weekly market is held.

Chináb.—River in the Punjáb.—*See* CHENAB.

Chinamandem.—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 13° 56′ N., long. 78° 44′ E.; houses, 1085; pop. (1871), 5574.

Chinchimulla.—Formerly a separate estate, but in 1814 added to BANAGANAPALLI, Madras.

Chinchli.—State in Khandesh, Bombay.—*See* DANG STATES.

Chingleput.—District, *táluk*, and town in Madras.—*See* CHENGALPAT.

Chíni.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated about a mile from the right bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), in a slight depression on the southern slope of a lofty mountain, in lat. 31° 31′ N., and long. 78° 19′ E. Elevation above the river, 1500 feet; above sea level, 9085 feet. Naturally irrigated by a large number of little rills, and surrounded with vineyards, whose grapes, dried into raisins, form a principal article of food for the people. Large dogs, specially trained for the purpose, deter the bears from plundering the vines. Chíni was the favourite hill residence of Lord Dalhousie.

Chiniot.—*Tahsíl* of Jhang District, Punjab; lying for the most part in the Rechna Doáb, but also extending a little beyond the Chenáb, between lat. 31° 30′ 30″ and 31° 50′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 35′ and 73° 14′ E., into the country immediately above its junction with the Jhelum (Jhílam).

Chiniot.—Municipal town in Jhang District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 31° 43′ 32″ N., long. 73° 0′ 59″ E. Pop. (1868), 11,477, comprising 3554 Hindus, 7418 Muhammadans, 162 Sikhs, and 343 'others.' Situated 3 miles south of the present bed of the Chenáb, on the road from Jhang to Wazírábád. Founded prior to the Musalmán conquest of Upper India. Suffered much during the troubles of 1848, being the scene of constant sanguinary struggles between the leaders of local factions. Manufacture of coarse cloth; small transit trade from Afghánistán to Lahore; unimportant traffic and inconsiderable salt mines. Handsome mosque; shrine dedicated to Sháh Barhán, a Muhammadan saint, revered by Hindus and Musalmáns alike. Famous for native painters and artificers. Chief inhabitants, Khojas. *Tahsíli*, and police station. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £885, or 1s. 5⅞d. per head of population (11,817) within municipal limits.

Chinnamaláipur.—Peak of the Eastern Gháts, in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 18° 40′ N., long. 84° 6′ E. Height, 1615 feet above sea level. Situated a mile east of the Parla Kimedi and Chicacole road. One of the stations of the Grand Trigonometrical Survey.

Chinsurah.—Town in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, a short distance south of Húglí town. Lat. 22° 53′ 1″ N., long. 88° 26′ 40″ E. Chinsurah is now included within the Húglí municipality, and the Census returns of 1872 do not distinguish between the two towns. The Dutch established themselves here in the 17th century, and held the place till 1825, when it was ceded by the Netherlands Government to Great Britain. The town is neatly laid out. It was formerly used as an invalid depôt for troops, and for regiments arriving from or proceeding to England; but within the

last few years it has been abandoned as a military station. It contains a public library and printing press.

Chintadrapet.—A quarter of MADRAS TOWN.

Chintalnár.—Chiefship in Bastar, Central Provinces, comprising about 100 villages. Area, 480 square miles. The forests supply teak, which is exported by the Chintálong, a small stream flowing into the Tál river. The chief resides at Jigargunda.

Chintamani-pet.—Municipal town in Kolár District, Mysore; 25 miles north-north-west of Kolár. Lat. 13° 24′ 20″ N., long. 78° 5′ 45″ E.; pop. (1871), 4208, including 477 Muhammadans and 4 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £18; rate of taxation, 1d. per head. Named after its Marhattá founder, Chintamani Ráo, and a seat of the Komati or banking class. Considerable trade, chiefly in gold, silver, and precious stones. The neighbourhood is famous for pomegranates. Until 1873, headquarters of the Ambáji-durga *táluk*.

Chintpurní (*Achintpurni*, or *Sola Singhi*).—Mountain range in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab, forming the eastern boundary of the Jaswán Dún. Commences at a point close to Talwára, on the Beas (Biás) river, and runs in a south-eastward direction between the Districts of Hoshiárpur and Kángra. Its highest point, at the encamping ground of Bharwáin, 28 miles from Hoshiárpur on the Dharmsála road, is 3896 feet above the sea. Thence the ridge continues till it crosses the valley of the Sutlej (Satlaj), its northern slope sinking gradually into the Beas (Biás) basin, while its southward escarpment consists of an abrupt cliff about 300 feet in height. The space between its central line and the plain portion of the Jaswán Dún is occupied by a broad tableland, thickly clothed with forest, and intersected by precipitous ravines, which divide the surface into natural blocks. Beyond the Sutlej, the chain assumes the name of the NALAGARH RANGE.

Chiplun.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Ratnágiri District, Bombay. Lat. 17° 31′ 25″ N., long. 73° 33′ 50″ E. Situated 108 miles south-east of Bombay, and about 25 miles from the coast on the south bank of the river Wáshishti, which is navigable for boats of nearly 2 tons. Pop. (1872), 6071. Sub-judge's court, and post office. About a quarter of a mile south of the town are some Buddhist excavations.

Chípurupalle.—*Táluk* of Vizagapatam District, Madras. Houses, 45,401, grouped into 504 villages, all *zamíndárí*; pop. (1871), 204,382, almost all Hindus, viz. Vaishnavs 176,890, Sivaites 26,718, and Lingáyats 108.

Chípurupalle.—Estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras; consisting of one village, assessed at £381 per annum. Formerly part of the Pánchadárla estate; but when that *hunda* was transferred to the Vizianágram domains, within the ancient territorial limits of which it was

found to lie, the remainder was named the Chípurupalle estate, after the most central village in it. The Rájá of Vizianágram bought the estate, which then contained 24 villages, for an annual payment of £3623. Fifteen of the 24 villages have since lapsed to Government on account of arrears of revenue, and 8 others have been apportioned among as many different proprietors. The present estate, therefore, consists of one village only.

Chirang Dwár.—One of the Dwárs or sub-montane tracts conquered from Bhután in 1869, and now forming part of the Eastern Dwárs, in Goálpára District, Assam. Area, 495 square miles; pop. (1870), 756. Almost the entire area is waste, the density of population being less than 2 persons per square mile. A tract of 225·60 square miles, or nearly one-half of the whole, has been set apart as forest reserves, and divided into 13 valuable *sál* forests. The settlement of the cultivated fields, which cover an aggregate of only 934 acres, has been made by Government directly with the cultivators for a term of 7 years.

Chirela.—Town in Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 58′ 20″ N., long. 80° 4′ 10″ E.; houses, 1819; pop. (1871), 9256. Formerly in Nellore District. Noted for its cotton manufactures.

Chirgáon.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 3355. Situated in lat. 25° 35′ N., and long. 78° 52′ E., on the road to Cawnpore, 18 miles north-east of Jhánsi, and 14 miles south-west of Moth. Formerly the property of a Bundela Thákur, a descendant of Bír Sinh Deo of Orchha, who held a *sanad* from the British Government. In 1841, Ráo Bakht Sinh, the ruling chief, was expelled for disloyalty; his fort being razed to the ground, and his whole estate confiscated. He was afterwards killed at Panwári. His surviving son, Ráo Raghunáth Sinh, receives a pension of £30 per month. Police and customs stations.

Chirkhári.—State and town in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* CHARKHARI.

Chirner. — Seaport in Tanna District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £17,649; imports, £1804.

Chit.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 45′ 4″ N., long. 84° 2′ 39″ E. Area, 53 acres; pop. (1872), 5821. Situated 6 miles north of the Ganges, and distant from Gházipur 30 miles north-east. Agricultural centre of merely local importance.

Chitaldrúg (*Chitaldroog*).—District of the Nagar Division, Mysore. Including the extreme limits of two long narrow projections into the Madras District of Bellary, it is situated between 13° 35′ and 15° 2′ N. lat., and between 75° 43′ and 77° 30′ E. long.; estimated area, 4471 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 531,360. On the north and north-east, it is bounded by the

District of Bellary, in the Madras Presidency; and on the north-west, it is separated by the Tungabhadra river from the Bombay District of Dhárwár. The administrative headquarters are at the town of CHITALDRUG.

Physical Aspects.—The District is distinguished in Mysore for its low rainfall, and the arid, stony character of the soil. It consists for the most part of the valley of the Vedavati or Hagari river, a tributary of the Tungabhadra, running from south-west to north-east; and it is traversed crosswise by a belt of intermittent parallel chains of low hills. The highest summits of these hills are from 2800 to 3800 feet above sea level. The rest of the District is an open plain, entirely destitute of picturesque features, with an average elevation of about 2000 feet. The Vedavati river occupies a wide sandy bed, which is almost dry of water during the hot months, except where wells are sunk for irrigation. The Tungabhadra river forms the north-western boundary for a few miles, and the Northern Pinákini enters the District on the extreme east for an equally short distance. In no part of Chitaldrúg are trees numerous; and the present sterile condition of the country is attributed to the reckless destruction of the former forests. Rich grass for pasturage abounds in certain tracts, and the soil is productive wherever it can be artificially watered. The well-known 'black cotton soil,' interspersed with sandy patches, prevails in the north and west; in the south, the earth is largely impregnated with salt, which is favourable to the production of the cocoa-nut; and towards the east, the surface soil is light and sandy, and abounds in springs, which form so prominent a feature in the agriculture of the neighbouring Districts of Túmkúr and Bellary. The central range of hills presents a succession of different formations. In the south, the hills are mainly composed of a ferruginous clayey slate, topped with magnetic ironstone; about Chitaldrúg is found the prevailing syenite of Mysore, with felspar and mica; while towards the north, the lower ridges consist of a compound in which chlorite, oxide of iron, and hornblende appear. Among minerals may be mentioned iron ore in various forms, asbestos, potstone, slate, actinolite, and carbonate of soda. The wild animals include the tiger, panther, bear, hyæna, and wild hog. As elsewhere in Mysore, trees have been planted out in avenues along the public roads, and the cultivators are encouraged to grow groves of their own; but the trees thus planted are kept alive with much difficulty, and there is not sufficient timber in the District to serve for the local demands of housebuilding.

History.—The history of Chitaldrúg is chiefly associated with the names of the *poligárs* or petty chieftains, who rose to independence during the 17th century. The most ancient site in the District is the village of Nirgunda, which is proved by inscriptions of the 5th century

A.D. to have been the capital of a Jain principality, tributary to the Chera or Kongu empire. It is believed that descendants of this line continued to govern the country during the predominance of the Chalukya and Ballala dynasties. When the latter kingdom was overthrown by the Muhammadans in the 14th century, the Hindu sovereigns of Vijáyanagar became paramount over all Southern India; but the remoteness of their authority allowed numerous feudatories to assert their semi-independence. Foremost amongst these were the *poligárs* of Chitaldrúg, Nidugal, and Nayakanhalli. The Chitaldrúg family are acknowledged to belong to the Bedar caste, who subsist by hunting and tending cattle. The founder obtained possession of the hill fort of Chitaldrúg in about the year 1508; and, by the help of his warlike tribesmen, his descendants gradually extended their power over the greater part of the present District. During the wars which flowed from the disputes between the Muhammadans of Bijápur, the Mughals, and the Marhattás, the Chitaldrúg *poligár* served as a valuable auxiliary on the one side or the other; but, like the rest of the local chieftains, he fell before the conquering armies of Haidar Alí. In 1779, the fort of Chitaldrúg, which had been besieged by Haidar Alí on more than one previous occasion, was surrendered to him by treachery; he sent the ruling family prisoners to Seringapatam, transported the inhabitants in a body to people his capital, and enlisted the young boys of the Bedar caste in his own battalions. The *poligár* of Nidugal was subjected by Haidar Alí at about the same time, though the family survived to be finally extirpated by Tipú in 1799. They are said to have been descended from a Kshattriya immigrant, to whom the country was granted by the Vijáyanagar sovereign in the 16th century. The hill fort of Nidugal became their residence after they had been driven from the plains by the Musalmán Nawáb of Síra. The Nayakanhalli family were chiefs of smaller note, whose territory had been absorbed by the Chitaldrúg *poligár* before the days of Haidar Alí. On the death of Tipú, in 1799, Chitaldrúg was included in the dominions of the resuscitated Hindu Rájá of Mysore. The west and south suffered during the disturbances of 1830, which led to the intervention of the Indian Government; and the entire State has thenceforth been under direct British administration.

Population.—A *khána-sumári*, or house enumeration of the people, in 1853-54, returned a total of 289,495 persons. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 531,360, showing an increase of more than 83 per cent. in the interval of 18 years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. This increase is far larger than in any other District of Mysore; and it is conjectured that it may be partly due to immigration from the neighbouring District of Shimoga. The area of Chitaldrúg is approximately estimated at 4471 square miles, which

gives an average of 118·8 persons per square mile, the lowest average in all Mysore. The most densely populated *táluk* is Davangere. Classified according to sex, there are 271,587 males and 259,773 females; proportion of males, 51·11 per cent. There are, under 12 years of age, 102,730 boys and 100,266 girls; total, 202,996, or 38 per cent. of the District population. The occupation tables are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that 119,490 persons are returned as connected with agriculture, and 41,703 with manufacture and arts. The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 512,171, or 96·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 18,068, or 3·4 per cent.; Jains, 847, or ·15 per cent.; Christians, 270, or ·05 per cent.; and 4 Pársís. The Hindus are further subdivided, according to the two great sects, into 240,647 worshippers of Vishnu, and 271,524 worshippers of Siva. The Bráhmans number 8198, almost equally divided between the Smárta and Mádha sects; the claimants to the rank of Kshattriyahood number 3325, including 2474 Marhattás, 369 Rájputs, and 24 Síkhs; the Vaisyas are represented by 4469, of whom 4406 are Komatis. Of inferior castes, the most numerous are—the Bedars (98,050), hunters, whose chief was the former *poligár* of Chitaldrúg; the Wokligas (69,735), agricultural labourers; the Gollas (46,296), herdsmen; and the Kurubas (35,459), shepherds. The Lingáyats, who have always been influential in this part of the country, and have supplied several families of petty *poligárs*, number 44,142. Out-castes are returned at 58,245, and wandering tribes at 10,266. Altogether, the chief feature in this ethnical classification is the small proportion of the pure Hindu castes, as compared with the rest of Mysore. The Muhammadans, who muster strongest in the *táluk* of Davangere, are almost all described as Deccani Musalmáns of the Sunni sect. The four Pársís are all resident in Davangere. Out of the total of 270 Christians, 15 are Europeans and 36 Eurasians, leaving 219 for the native converts. According to another principle of classification, there are 146 Protestants and 270 Roman Catholics.

The District contains 1511 primary (*asali*) populated towns and villages, with 15,399 houses of the better class, or above £50 in value, and 81,001 houses of the inferior sort. As compared with the area and the population, these figures give the following averages:—Villages per square mile, ·34; houses per square mile, 22; persons per village, 352; persons per house, 5·51. The four following places each contain more than 5000 inhabitants:—DAVANGERE (6596), the chief centre of trade and manufacture, and the residence of many wealthy Lingáyats; HARIHAR (6401), where a native regiment used formerly to be stationed, on the Tungabhadra river, which is here crossed by a masonry bridge, erected at the cost of £35,000; CHITALDRUG town (5812), the civil headquarters of the District, but abandoned as a military cantonment on account of its unhealthiness; TURUVANUR (5072). There are altogether

eleven municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal revenue, in 1874-75, of £1071. On the Jogimáth, one of the highest hills immediately south of Chitaldrúg town, a teak plantation and sanitarium have been formed.

Agriculture.—The greater part of the food supply is furnished by the 'dry crops,' among which the following are the most important:—*Rágí* (Cynosurus corocanus); *joár* (Holcus sorghum) and *navane* (Panicum Italicum), two varieties of millet; and the pulses, *kadali* (Cicer arietinum), *togari* (Cajanus Indicus), and *hurali* (Dolichos uniflorus). Rice is only grown in the river valleys. Cotton is extensively raised in certain tracts, and in the south there are large groves of cocoa-nut palms. In the east, the soil is naturally so sterile, and the rainfall is so small, that even *rágí* requires to be regularly irrigated from wells. There are, altogether, 1795 tanks in the District, a comparatively small number for Mysore. Irrigation is the great want of Chitaldrúg, for without it every crop is precarious. Since the beginning of the present century, a project has been under consideration of embanking the Vedavati river, where it breaks through the central range of the District. The cost is estimated at £150,000; and 50,000 acres in the fertile but arid plain of Hiriyur would thus be rendered productive. The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate:—Out of the total area of 4471 square miles, 1556 are returned as under cultivation, and 1102 as cultivable. The area under rice is 45,825 acres; wheat, 7573; other food grains, 821,298; oil-seeds, 99,565; cotton, 28,962; vegetables, 93,744; cocoa-nut and areca-nut palms, 14,404. The returns of agricultural stock show 8962 carts and 72,002 ploughs. But the chief wealth of Chitaldrúg District consists in its flocks and herds. The common cattle of the villagers are of a small size; but on the wide pasture grounds belonging to the *amritá mahál* graze some of the largest and finest cattle in Southern India. The best cows and the best buffaloes are bred in the neighbourhood of Chitaldrúg town. The most valuable breeds of sheep, on the other hand, are to be found in the north-west of the District. The total number of cows and bullocks is returned at 351,915; of sheep and goats, at 397,996.

Manufactures, etc.—The staple industries depend upon the local productions of cotton, wool, and iron. The weaving of coarse cotton cloth is carried on in all parts of the District, and several villages are known for the special fineness or peculiar pattern of their work. *Kamblis*, or woollen blankets, are also made everywhere, both white and black, as well as checked. The size is generally 18 feet long by 6 feet wide, and the price varies from 32s. to £4. Some are occasionally produced of so delicate a texture that it is said they can be rolled up into a hollow bamboo, and £30 is asked for such a fancy article. The weaving of silk is confined to a few localities. Iron ore is largely smelted in the

central hill ranges; the articles produced are agricultural implements and weapons of steel. The manufacture of glass ornaments, such as bangles, forms a speciality of the village of Mattod, and coarse paper is made from old sacking in the Dodéri *táluk;* but both these industries have much fallen off in recent years.

The principal centre of trade is the thriving town of Davangere, in the north-west of the District, where a large through traffic is conducted. The areca-nut and pepper of the Malnád or hill country of West Mysore are here exchanged for the piece-goods, hardware, salt, etc., imported from Madras, and the *kamblis* manufactured in the neighbourhood. The merchants mostly belong to the Lingáyat sect. The most frequented religious fair is held at the sacred village of Nayakanhalli, in the Dodderi *táluk*, where 15,000 persons assemble annually. There are no railroads in the District. The imperial roads have a total length of 191 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £3403; of District roads, there are 224 miles, costing £1616.

Administration. — In 1873-74, the total revenue of Chitaldrúg District, excluding forests, education, and public works, amounted to £107,039. The chief items were—land revenue, £75,562; *ábkári* or excise, £15,204; *mohatarfa* or assessed taxes, £6460. The District is divided into 8 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 51 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71, the total number of estates on the register was 165,396, owned by 52,813 proprietors or coparceners. During 1874, the average daily prison population of the District jail amounted to 27·82, and of the *táluk* lock-ups to 11·68; total, 39·50, of whom 3·30 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 13,855 of the population. In the same year the District police force numbered 2 superior officers, 38 subordinate officers, and 280 constables, and the municipal police one officer and 12 constables; total, 333 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £3440. These figures show one policeman to every 13 square miles of area, or to every 1596 persons of the population; the cost being 15s. 4d. per square mile and 1½d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 296, attended by 5847 pupils, being one school to every 15·10 square miles, and 11 pupils to every thousand of the population. In addition, there were 221 unaided schools, with 2831 pupils.

Medical Aspects. — The climate of Chitaldrúg is characterised by a drier heat than the rest of Mysore. The rainfall is considerably less, and there are few forests or inequalities of surface to moderate the radiation from the bare plain. In the western part, a cool breeze from the west sometimes blows during night in the hot season. The mean average temperature during the year is about 78½°, the hottest month being April. The average rainfall at Chitaldrúg town, calculated on the seven years ending 1874, amounts to only 24·58 inches, of which

nearly one-half falls in the single month of October, at the season of the breaking of the north-east monsoon. Certain parts of the District receive less than 10 inches in the year; and if this supply fails, severe distress is inevitably occasioned.

It has already been stated that Chitaldrúg town was abandoned as a military station on account of its unhealthiness. The vital statistics of the District are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that out of the total of 4786 deaths reported in 1872, 2694 were assigned to fevers, 574 to bowel complaints, 315 to small-pox, and 34 to snake-bite and wild beasts. As throughout the greater part of Mysore, outbreaks of cholera are rare. In 1874, the dispensary at Chitaldrúg town was attended by 166 in-patients, of whom none died, and by 3969 out-patients.

Chitaldrúg.—*Táluk* in District of the same name, Mysore. Area, 663 square miles; pop. (1871), 80,777, the Reddi caste being especially numerous; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £10,480, or 1s. 5d. per cultivated acre.

Chitaldrúg (*'Spotted castle,'* or *'Umbrella rock'*).—Chief town of the District of the same name, Mysore; 126 miles north-west of Bangalore. Lat. 14° 14′ N., long. 76° 26′ E.; pop. (1871), 5812, including 833 Muhammadans, 15 Jains, and 27 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £422; rate of taxation, 1s. 7d. per head. The modern town stands at the north-east base of a cluster of hills, covered with extensive fortifications. Many inscriptions have been found of the Chalukya, Ballala, and Vijáyanagar dynasties. Local history commences with the family of the Chitaldrúg *poligárs*, who trace back to the 15th century. Their hereditary title was Náyak, and they claimed descent from the Bedar or Boya caste of hunters and mountaineers. They gradually extended their power on all sides until they came into collision with Haidar Alí, who captured Chitaldrúg in 1779, sent the last of the Náyaks prisoner to Seringapatam, and dispersed the Bedar population. The remains of the mud fort and palace of the *poligárs* are still to be seen. Haidar Alí erected a formidable stone fortress, within which his son Tipú built a palace, now used as a court-house. They also constructed immense granaries and pits, for storing oil and *ghí*. Inside the fortifications are 14 temples, of which the principal, dedicated to Huchangi-amma, has two storeys. Water is conducted to all the streets from the Timmanhalli tank. The cantonments have been abandoned as a station for British troops, on account of their unhealthiness. The weavers of Chitaldrúg were once celebrated, but only country blankets and coarse cotton cloth are now made. In the neighbourhood are several *maths* or Hindu convents. The largest is the Murgi *math*, 3 miles to the north-west, the residence of the chief *gúrú* of the Siva Chaktars or Lingáyats.

Chitalmárí.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Madhumatí. The site of an annual fair held at the end of March, lasting six days, and attended by about 4000 people daily.

Chitang.—River in Umballa (Ambálá) and Karnál Districts, Punjab; rises in the plains a few miles south of the SARASWATI (Sursati), with which it runs parallel for a distance. Near Bálchaffar the two rivers apparently unite in the sands, but reappear in two distinct channels farther down, the Chitang running parallel with the Jumna (Jamuná), and then turning westward towards Hánsi and Hissár. The bed in this part of its course affords a channel for the Hissár branch of the Western Jumna Canal. Traces of the deserted waterway are visible as far as the Ghaggar, which it formerly joined some miles below Bhatner; but the stream is now entirely diverted into the canal. In former days it lost itself in the sand, like others of the smaller Cis-Sutlej rivers. Some authorities consider that the Chitang is an artificial channel. Cultivation extends along its banks in a few isolated patches, but for the most part a fringe of dense jungle lines its course.

Chítá Rewá.—River of the Central Provinces, rising in Chhindwára District, and after a course of over 50 miles, falling into the Shakar, about a mile above the railway bridge at Pátlon in Narsinhpur District. The coal, worked by the Narbadá (Nerbudda) Mining Company, appears in the gorge through which this river leaves the Sátpura tableland.

Chitarkot.—Hill and place of pilgrimage in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; distant 71 miles from Allahábád, and 42 miles from Bánda. The Páisuni river flows beneath its base, which has a circumference of some 3 miles. A terrace runs round the hillside, upon which pilgrims perform the ceremony of circumambulation. Thirty-three shrines, dedicated to various deities, crown the surrounding hills or fringe the banks of the Páisuni. The temple attendants hold the revenues of 39 villages within British territory, besides several others in the adjoining Native States. Two large fairs take place annually, which formerly attracted from 30,000 to 45,000 visitors, but not more than 15,000 now attend. Thirty *ghâts*, or bathing places, along the banks of the river are held by Bráhman families, who levy dues upon the pilgrims. Tradition sets down the total number of religious buildings at 360, a sacred number of constant occurrence throughout Upper India.

Chitartalá.—River of Cuttack District, Orissa. A branch of the Mahánadi, which leaves the parent stream about 10 miles below the point where it throws off the Birupá. After flowing a few miles, the Chitartalá bifurcates into the Chitartalá and the Nún. These streams re-unite after a course of about 20 miles; and under the name of the Nún, the united waters fall into the Mahánadi estuary a few miles from the coast, and so into the Bay of Bengal. The Kendrapára Canal runs

along the north bank of the Chitartalá to the point where the Nún diverges to the northwards, whence it proceeds along the bank of the latter river till it drops into tidal waters at Mársághái, after a total length of 42½ miles from Cuttack.

Chitrá (*'The Variegated' or 'Glancing Waters'*).—River of Jessor District, Bengal. In Rennel's *Bengal Atlas*, of the last century, this river is an offshoot of the Nabágangá, at a point 3 miles from where the latter river left the Mátábhángá. At the present day, however, the head of the Chitrá is completely closed, partly by the silting up of the Nabágangá, and partly by an artificial disconnection with it, by means of an embankment which an indigo planter threw across the head of the Chitrá about forty-five years ago. The river flows through Jessor in a south-south-easterly direction, past Káliganj, Khajurá, Ghorákhálí, Narál, and Gobrá, till it loses itself in the low marshy country in the interior of the District. Navigable in a portion of its course by boats of about 2 tons burden from the commencement of the rains up to December, but before the end of February closed to all but the smallest craft.

Chitrávati.—River in Cuddapah District, Madras. It rises at Nandidrúg in Mysore, and, flowing across Bellary District, joins the Pennér in the Jamalmadugu *táluk*.

Chitrawáo.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £60. Pays tribute of £49 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and about £4 to Junágarh.

Chittagong.—A Division or Commissionership of Bengal; between 20° 43′ and 23° 46′ N. lat., and between 90° 43′ and 92° 44′ E. long.; comprising the Districts of CHITTAGONG, NOAKHALI, Chittagong Hill Tracts. Bounded on the N. by Tipperah District and Hill Tipperah State, on the E. by the hilly tract inhabited by Lusháis and other half-savage tribes, on the S. by Akyáb District in British Burma, and on the W. by the Bay of Bengal and the Meghná estuary. Area, according to Parliamentary Return (1877), and allowing for recent transfers, 9735 square miles; pop. (1872), 2,025,645; average density of pop. 208 per sq. mile.

Chittagong (*Saptagrám*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 20° 45′ and 22° 59′ N. lat., and between 91° 30′ and 92° 25′ E. long. Area in 1872, 2498 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,127,402 souls. Allowing for recent transfers, the area of the District, according to the Parliamentary abstract for 1876-77, is 2322 square miles, and the population, 1,006,422. Bounded on the north-west and north by the river Phení, which separates it from the British Districts of Noákhálí and Tipperah, and from the semi-independent State of Hill Tipperah; on the east by the Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Arakan Province of British

Burma; on the south by the Náf, now separating it from Arakan; and on the west by the Bay of Bengal. The chief town and administrative headquarters is CHITTAGONG or Islámabad.

Physical Aspects.—Chittagong District consists of a long and narrow strip of coast, backed by low ranges of hills, lying between the Bay of Bengal and the Chittagong and Arakan Hill Tracts. Its length is about 165 miles, and its average breadth about 15 miles. The low ranges of hills run, through the greater part of their length, almost parallel with each other, and with the coast-line. The level strip of land between the coast and the first of these ranges is intersected by numerous large tidal creeks, especially an alluvial tract in the central portion of the District opposite the islands of Máskhál and Kutabdiá, which in character and general appearance greatly resembles the Gangetic SUNDARBANS. These creeks are navigable, but are not used to any great extent for purposes of commerce; and in the Sundarban tract alluded to, they are silting up at their mouths. New land is thus constantly being formed, which soon becomes covered with mangrove, scrub, and palms. The principal rivers of the District are the Karnaphulí and the Sangu, both of which are navigable throughout the year. The Phení, which forms the boundary between Chittagong and Noákhálí, can hardly be called a river of the District, and nowhere intersects it. The Karnaphulí rises in the north-east of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and, after a very tortuous westerly and south-westerly course through Chittagong, falls into the Bay of Bengal. Its principal tributary is the Haldá. The Sangu also follows a very circuitous course, and finally enters the Bay of Bengal 10 miles south of the Karnaphulí. Smaller streams and water-courses, navigable throughout the rainy season by small native boats, intersect the District in all directions. A considerable portion of the low-lying tract of Chittagong was at one time protected by embankments from the sea. The principal of these embankments were those in the island of Kutabdiá, and the Gandámára dykes built to protect the village of Gandámára. Most of the embankments, including those just named, were abandoned by Government, and have now been breached by the sea. There are five principal hill ranges in the District—namely, (1) the Sitákund; (2) the Goliási; (3) the Sátkániá; (4) the Máskhál; and (5) the Teknáf range. Of these, the most interesting is the first-named, which contains the sacred peak of CHANDRANATH or Sitákund, 1155 feet in height, the highest hill in the District.

History.—Chittagong originally formed part of the extensive Hindu kingdom of Tipperah; but, prior to its conquest by the Muhammadans, it had frequently changed masters. Lying on the frontier between Bengal and Burma, it formed a source of chronic feud between the Hindu King of Tipperah and the Buddhist King of Arakan. The District was

probably first conquered by the Muhammadans during the period of Afghán supremacy in Bengal, between the 13th and 16th centuries. The Portuguese historian, Faria de Souza, states that, in the year 1538, the Viceroy of Goa despatched an envoy to the Afghán King of Bengal, who landed at Chittagong, and proceeded thence to the capital at Gaur. The king, however, being suspicious of the intentions of the Portuguese, seized thirteen members of the embassy at Gaur, together with their ship's company. In revenge for this outrage, the Portuguese, some months afterwards, burned Chittagong. During the struggle between the Mughals and Afgháns for the supremacy in Bengal, towards the close of the 16th century, Chittagong seems to have been reconquered by the Rájá of Arakan, and annexed to his kingdom as a tributary Province; this reconquest, however, was ignored by the Mughals, after the final expulsion of the Afgháns from Bengal. Todar Mall, Akbar's finance minister, continued to treat the District as an integral part of the Muhammadan dominions; and, in 1582, fixed its assessment on the rent-roll of the empire 'by estimation' at £28,560. As a matter of fact, Chittagong was then a province of Arakan, and remained so until 1666, when it was reannexed to the Mughal empire. In 1638, Matak Rái, a Magh chief, held Chittagong on behalf of the Arakan Rájá; but, having displeased his prince, and fearing punishment, he sought the protection of the Mughals, acknowledged himself a vassal of the Delhi empire, and nominally made over the sovereignty of his territory to the Governor of Bengal. Soon after this, the depredations of the Arakanese became intolerable. For many years they had been making piratical incursions into the Muhammadan territory, penetrating far up the rivers of Bengal, and carrying into slavery the inhabitants of all the river-side villages. The Maghs were aided by numbers of half-caste Portuguese adventurers, maintained in the employ of the Rájá of Arakan. In 1664-65, Sháistá Khán, then Governor of Bengal, resolved to put an end to these incursions, and for that purpose undertook an expedition on a large scale against the Arakan Rájá. An account of the operations will be found in Stewart's *History of Bengal*, pp. 187-189, ed. 1847 (quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 112, 113). The expedition resulted in the capture of some forts at the mouth of the Meghná river, and in the storming of Chittagong town. The Maghs were also driven out of the island of Sandwíp, of which they had been for many years in possession. Twenty years after the occurrence of these events (1685), the first connection of the English with Chittagong took place. In that year, the East India Company, in consequence of disputes with the Nawáb of Bengal, sent out an expedition under Admiral Nicholson, with instructions to seize Chittagong and fortify it on behalf of the English. Owing to circumstances which occurred at Húglí (*see* HUGLI DISTRICT), the Admiral

never proceeded to Chittagong, and the District did not pass into our possession until 1760, when it was ceded to the East India Company, along with Bardwán and Midnapur, by Mír Kásim. The administration of Chittagong was at once placed in the hands of an English 'Chief' with a Council, and the District soon settled down into a well-regulated English Province. Immediately after the annexation of Arakan by the King of Burma, a large immigration of Maghs took place into Chittagong. To this immigration, the first Burmese War may be indirectly traced (*see* BURMA, BRITISH). The only event of any importance in the more recent history of the District was a not very serious outbreak of mutiny, in November 1857, at CHITTAGONG TOWN.

Population.—Prior to 1872, no systematic attempt was made to enumerate the population of Chittagong. In 1801, it was roughly estimated at 1,200,000, exclusive of Magh settlers; but this estimate was subsequently reduced to 800,000, which is the number quoted in the Board of Revenue's Statistics for 1868-69. The first regular Census was taken in 1872. That enumeration disclosed a population (including Mirkásarái *tháná*, since transferred to Noákhálí District) of 1,127,402 persons, dwelling in 1062 villages and 197,104 houses, the average density of the population being 451 per square mile. The number of villages or townships per square mile was 0·43, and of houses, 79; persons per village, 1062—per house, 5·7. The number of males was 536,059, or 47·5 per cent. of the total population. Of children under 12, there were 449,253 (or 39·8 per cent. of the District population), of whom 248,411 were males. The excess of the female over the male population of Chittagong is attributed to the fact, that the District supplies *laskars* or native sailors for vessels trading in Indian waters, and also sends a number of labourers to Arákán in the cold season, during which the Census of 1872 was taken. Classified according to ethnical divisions, the population consisted of—146 non-Asiatics (almost all Europeans); 896 of mixed nationality (Eurasians, 42, and Firinghís, 854); and 1,126,360 Asiatics. The Firinghís are descendants of the early Portuguese settlers; some account of them will be found in the *Calcutta Review* for July 1871, quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 148, 149. Belonging to aboriginal tribes, there were, in 1872, 1013 persons, of whom 949 were Nats. Of semi-Hinduized aborigines, there were 24,506. The number of Bráhmans in the District was 22,657; and of Káyasths (the most numerous caste in Chittagong), 68,916. Burmese numbered 41,259, of whom 30,026 were Maghs and 10,852 Rájbánsís. These Rájbánsís are the offspring of Bengali women by Burmese husbands; they live in the plains, speak the Bengali language, and follow Hindu customs. The great majority of the population—795,013, or 70·5 per cent.—are Muhammadans; the Hindus number 301,138, or 26·7 per cent.; the

Buddhists, 30,149, or 2·7 per cent.; the number of Christians is 1804, most of whom are Firinghís, only 42 being natives. All the above figures are taken from the Census Report of 1872, and include the *tháná* of Mirkásarái, which has since been transferred to Noákhálí District. The population of this *tháná* in 1872 was 120,980; area, 237 square miles; number of villages, 152, and of houses, 13,873. Allowing for the transfer of Mirkásarái, and other minor changes which have recently taken place, the present area of the District (Parliamentary Abstract, 1876-77) is 2322 square miles; and the population, 1,006,422. The population is altogether rural; and, with the exception of the municipality of Chittagong, there is no town containing more than 5000 inhabitants. The population of CHITTAGONG TOWN is 20,604; and that of COX'S BAZAR, the only other town of any importance in the District, is 4280, of whom more than three-fourths are Maghs. The principal villages are Phatikchari, Kumiriá, Háthazárí, Ráoján, Patiá, Sátkániá, Chandranáth (on Sitákund Hill, a frequented place of pilgrimage), Máskhál (in the island of the same name), Chakariá, and Ramu. Near Rájákul, a village to the south of Ramu, are the remains of an old fort which, it is supposed, belonged to a Magh chieftain; but there are singularly few relics in the District suggestive of its historical importance.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop of Chittagong. There are three harvests in the year—*boro*, or spring rice; *áus*, the autumn crop; and *áman*, or winter rice. These are further subdivided into 33 principal varieties. Other crops are Indian corn, wheat, barley, peas, jute, flax, mustard, sugar-cane, *pán*, cotton, tobacco, and tea. Of these the most important are the three last named. An account of the cultivation of cotton and tobacco in the Hill Tracts will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol vi. pp. 199-207. The introduction of tea into the District dates from 1840, in which year some tea-seed was received from Assam and three China plants from Calcutta. Three years later, the first tea was manufactured in the District. According to the latest returns, the total cultivated area in Chittagong amounts to 544,640 acres, and the area cultivable but not cultivated to 21,120 acres. Almost the whole—537,472 acres—of the cultivated area is devoted to food crops. The average produce per acre of rice is about 15 *maunds* or 11 cwts.; wheat, 11 cwts.; inferior grains, 12 cwts.; oil-seeds, $5\frac{3}{4}$ cwts.; tobacco, 7 cwts. The average rent for good land is about £1, 2s. 6d. an acre; and for poor soil, about 12s. Rich alluvial land along the banks of rivers, suited to the cultivation of tobacco, *pán*, and other special crops, is rented at much higher rates, the average being £2, 2s. an acre. Wages have increased very considerably of late years. In 1850-51, day-labourers and ploughmen received $1\frac{1}{2}$d. a day; in

1860-61, they earned from 3¾d. to 5¼d.; and by 1870-71, the wage for the same class of labour had risen as high as 6d. and 7½d. In the same way, smiths, bricklayers, and carpenters, who, in 1850-51, were paid 2¼d. a day; earned in 1860-61, 4½d. to 6¾d.; and in 1870-71, 7½d. The average price of the best cleaned rice in 1870-71 was 6s. 10d. a cwt.; and of coarse rice, 5s. The average price per cwt. of other produce was returned in the same year as follows:—Wheat, 6s. 2d.; linseed, 6s.; jute, 8s. 2d.; cotton, £1, 4s. 6d.; sugar, £1, 15s. 6d.; salt, 15s. Manure is used to some extent in Chittagong, and irrigation is effected by means of the numerous water-courses. *Pán* gardens are allowed to lie fallow for two years after three successive crops have been obtained. Sugar-cane is not grown two successive years on the same land. Chittagong is essentially a District of small estates.—See *Administration*.

Natural Calamities.—Blights occur from time to time, but not to such an extent as to affect the general food supply of the District. The lands along the coast are often flooded by the sea, and much injury is done; the existing embankments do not afford adequate protection against the encroachments of the water. Chittagong is also exposed to storms, but serious injury is rare. A severe cyclone passed over the southern portion of the District in October 1872, causing considerable loss of life and destruction of property. The cyclone and storm-wave of October 1876 swept the seaboard with still more disastrous results. Famine is unknown in the District, and could only result from a combination of extensive loss of local crops with great scarcity in the Gangetic Delta and Burma. The maximum price of rice in 1866, the year of the great Orissa famine, was 13s. 8d. a cwt., and of unhusked paddy, 5s. 5d. a cwt.

Commerce, etc.—The chief imports into Chittagong are piece-goods, salt, and earth-oil, and the principal export is rice. In 1873-74, 7752 tons of salt (valued at £36,898), and 1895 tons of earth-oil (valued at £32,513), were imported; and 57,599 tons of rice were exported. The total value of the sea-borne trade in the same year was—imports, £242,457, and exports, £582,182. Besides the town and port of Chittagong, the chief seats of trade in the District are Cox's Bázár, Maháján's-hát, Názir's-hát, and Roájá-hát; but nearly every village has a permanent *hát* or market held twice a week.

Manufactures are not carried on to any great extent in the District. A little coarse cloth is woven from cotton, and common kinds of pottery and silver and gold ornaments of inferior workmanship are made. In 1870, there were in Chittagong more than 220 miles of road, maintained at a total cost of £2868. There are several natural creeks, which furnish excellent means of communication. The more important of these, having a total length of 25½ miles, are kept clear by Government.

The expenditure on this account in 1870-71 was £23, 6s., and in 1871-72, £425, 12s.; in the latter year, considerable excavations had to be made. These waterways are all under the Canal Tolls Act, and are let out to farmers, who levy a fixed toll; yielding £618 in 1873-74.

Tea.—Tea cultivation was introduced into the District in 1840, in which year some tea-seeds were received from Assam, and a few China plants from the Calcutta Botanical Gardens. Three years later, the first tea was manufactured in Chittagong. In the end of 1862, a single planter, who visited the District, took up 20,000 acres of land; after this, other speculators came forward, applications for allotments of waste lands poured in, and a number of gardens were started, many of which failed through the fault of the managers, or from unsuitable sites having been chosen. Most of the lands intended for tea-planting are held in fee-simple, having been purchased under the Waste-Land Rules. Rich land, with good drainage and facilities for irrigation, is considered the best for the growth of tea; most of the suitable and accessible sites have been already taken up for cultivation. The number of plantations in 1872 was 13; the area under cultivation, 1203 acres; area taken up for planting, but not then planted, 23,687 acres. The approximate yield was 205,112 lbs., or an average of 198 lbs. per acre of mature plant. In 1868-69, the number of chests exported was 502; estimated value, £4016. In 1872-73, 3342 chests were exported, valued at £29,977; and in 1873-74, 4427 chests, valued at £30,147.

Administration.—When Chittagong was ceded to the English in 1760, it contained an area of 2987 square miles, and yielded (inclusive of grants for the maintenance of a military force) a revenue of *Sikká* Rs. 323,135. The tables of revenue and expenditure previous to 1870-71 contain so many items which are mere matters of account, transfer, and deposit, that they are useless for comparative purposes. In 1870-71, the net revenue of the District was £221,116, and the net expenditure, £56,035. The land tax formed the most important item of revenue, yielding £73,792. The number of estates paying rent to Government in the same year was 29,408, and the number of proprietors or coparceners, 52,047; the average land revenue paid by each estate being £2, 11s. $1\frac{1}{2}$d., and the average paid by each proprietor, £1, 8s. $10\frac{3}{4}$d. In 1790, there were only 3376 estates, and 5384 proprietors, paying a total land revenue of £51,412, or £15, 4s. $6\frac{3}{4}$d. per estate. By 1850-51, the number of estates had risen to 40,764, and of proprietors to 61,040; land revenue, £78,414; average per estate, £1, 18s. $5\frac{1}{2}$d. The number of magisterial courts in 1870-71 was 10, and of civil and revenue courts, 30. For police purposes, the District is divided into 13 *thánás.* The regular police force consisted in 1871 of 435 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £7927. There was also a municipal force of 75 men, costing £757, and a village

police consisting of 2648 men, receiving £5164 in money and lands. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property in the District consisted of 3158 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £13,848; giving one man to every ·79 of a square mile, for every 62 houses, and for every 357 of the population. The District possesses a central jail at Chittagong, and a lock-up at Cox's Bázár. The average daily number of prisoners in 1870 was 227. An English school was first established by Government in Chittagong in 1836, and in 1869 a high school was opened in connection with it, which was, however, closed in 1872, owing to want of funds. Since the introduction of the scheme for the encouragement of primary education, the number of schools established up to the end of 1872 was 45, attended by 1512 pupils. Apart from Government aid or inspection, Chittagong District stands exceptionally high in the general diffusion of indigenous elementary education. In 1874, there were no fewer than 1480 indigenous and unaided schools of various kinds not under Government supervision, attended by 23,953 pupils. For administrative purposes, Chittagong is divided into two Subdivisions. The fiscal subdivision into *parganás* has not been introduced into this District.

Medical Aspects.—Chittagong is very unhealthy. Every form of malarious disease is met with, intermittent fever being the most common. This fever seldom proves directly fatal; but its constant recurrence causes enlargement of the spleen and liver, anæmia, dropsy, and ultimately death from debility. The District is hardly ever entirely free from cholera. Amongst other causes to which the unhealthiness of Chittagong has been attributed, are the numerous tidal creeks and *khâls* (which have been described as 'simply a series of open sewers, without the advantage of ever being well flushed'), and the extraordinarily large number of tanks scattered over the lowlands, which are never cleaned, and are almost invariably choked with weeds and decaying vegetation. Chittagong town being open to the sea-breeze, which usually prevails during the day, is cool; but the atmosphere is often laden with moisture, and heavy night dews and occasional fogs are the result. Average annual temperature for six years ending 1873, 77·6° F. Average annual rainfall for fifteen years ending 1873, 105·79 inches.

Chittagong.—Headquarters Subdivision of District of same name, Bengal; lying between 21° 50′ and 22° 59′ N. lat., and between 91° 30′ and 92° 14′ 45″ E. long. Area, after allowing for the recent transfer of Mirkásarái *thánά* to Noákhálí, 1384 square miles, with 696 villages and towns and 157,667 houses. Pop. (1872), Muhammadans, 600,991; Hindus, 250,744; Buddhists, 12,432; Christians, 1049; and 'others,' 18; total, 865,234, viz. 409,744 males and 455,490 females. Average density of population, 626 per square mile; houses per square mile, 113; persons per village, 1243; persons per house, 5·5. The Sub-

division consists of the 7 police circles (*thánás*) of Chittagong, Kumiriá, Háthazárí, Phatikcharí, Ráoján, Patiá, and Sátkániá.

Chittagong.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of the District of the same name, Bengal; the principal port and the only municipality in the District. Lat. 22° 21′ 3″ N., long. 91° 52′ 44″ E.; area, 9 square miles; pop. (1872), 20,604—namely, 15,051 Muhammadans, 4687 Hindus, 744 Christians, and 122 Buddhists and 'others.' Of the total population, 12,206 are males and only 8398 females, the excess of males being due to the fact that many men come into the town from other parts in search of employment, leaving their families at home. Chittagong is situated on the right bank of the Karnaphulí river, about 12 miles from its mouth. The town is merely an agglomeration of small villages grouped together for municipal purposes. The houses occupied by the European residents are scattered over a considerable area, each house on a separate hill. These hills, though small, are very steep, and, with one or two exceptions, it is impossible to drive to the top. The principal streets are Díwán-bázár and its continuation Chandanpura-bázár, which run through the town from north to south. Besides the houses of the European and the principal native residents, the chief brick buildings are the Government offices, circuit house, and *dák* bungalow, churches (Roman Catholic and Protestant), schools, and dispensary. The municipal income for the year 1876-77 was £2245, derived mainly from the house-tax; rate of taxation, 1s. 10¼d. per head. The notorious unhealthiness of Chittagong is partly attributable to the existence of a large number of stagnant pools and tanks, from which malarious exhalations arise. Malaria is also carried by the prevalent wind (from the south or south-west) from the extensive *chars*, or marshy islands, which have been thrown up in the river opposite the town. Efforts are being made to improve the sanitary condition of the place.

Chittagong has long been an important place of trade, and the early Portuguese merchants gave it the name of Porto Grando. The establishment of the European settlements on the Húglí caused it to sink for a time into comparative insignificance. But of late it has gradually been resuming its place as a great centre of commerce; and the port, which is one of the best in India, is frequented by vessels from foreign countries as well as from the Indian Presidencies. Unfortunately it is comparatively inaccessible to native craft coming from Tipperah, Noákhálí, Dacca, and Bákarganj, which must, before entering the river, round a point where rough weather is often encountered. This risk they will not run, except during a short period from December to March, which covers most of the rice season, but does not allow of a traffic in oil-seed, jute, etc. As a remedy, it has been proposed to open out the Maheshkhálí Canal, which connects the port directly with the Bay of Bengal. This

channel cuts across the long tongue of land, the rounding of which to enter the Karnaphulí is so much dreaded, and affords a safe and expeditious route; but it has now partially silted up, and can only be used at high tide by small boats. The number of vessels which entered the port in 1860-61 was 66—tonnage, 9743; in 1865, the number of vessels was 221, and in 1874-75, it was 220—the tonnage in the former year being 44,282, while in the latter it was 83,900. In 1860-61, 100 vessels cleared—tonnage, 14,499; in 1865-66, the number of ships cleared was 247, and in 1874-75, it was 215—the tonnage being in the former year 47,905, and in the latter, 86,264. The water on the right bank of the river Karnaphulí (the side on which the port is situated) is becoming shallower every year—a fact which is accounted for by the action of the river. About two miles above Chittagong, the stream sets strongly against the right bank, and, being thrown off with considerable force, strikes with increasing vehemence against the left bank, about a mile above the town. Broad strips of land are thus yearly washed away into the river, and a large *char* or sandbank has formed in front of the upper portion of the town. Artificial means have been taken to protect the port; and the current, again thrown off, sets against the left bank once more, and is now scouring out on that side a new channel, separated from the shipping by a *char* in the middle of the river.

Chittagong has more than once played a conspicuous part in history. It was besieged and captured in 1665 by the Mughals, under Umed Khán, who changed the name of the place to Islámábád (*vide* CHITTAGONG DISTRICT). In 1857, on the night of the 18th November, the men of the 34th Native Infantry, stationed at Chittagong, suddenly mutinied. They released all the prisoners in the jail, killing one native constable, and early on the morning of the 19th left the station, carrying away with them three Government elephants, some ammunition, and treasure to the value of about £27,800, of which about £5000 was subsequently recovered. No one but the native constable was killed; and the *émeute* was not of any serious consequence.

Chittagong Hill Tracts.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 13′ and 23° 47′ N. lat., and between 91° 46′ and 92° 49′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary Abstract, 1877), 5561 square miles; population, 69,607. Bounded on the north by Hill Tipperah State, on the west by Chittagong District, and on the south by the Burmese District of Akyab. The eastern boundary is formed by a line running from the south-east corner of Hill Tipperah, along the course of the Túilenpúi or Sájjúk river, to its junction with the Karnaphulí; thence along the course of the Túichang, across the Uipúm range to the west, and along the Thegá Khál to its headwaters; thence westward along the watershed of the Weybong-tang, until it meets the southern hill station of

Keokradong on the Arakan frontier. The administrative headquarters are at RANGAMATI, but the most populous place in the District is BANDARBAN.

Physical Aspects.—The District is divided into four valleys, constituted by its four principal rivers—the PHENI, the KARNAPHULI, the SANGU, the MATAMURI, and their tributaries—and marked by chains of hills running from the south in a north-westerly direction. The Sangu and Mátámurí rivers, until they enter the plains, run parallel to the ranges, forming two regular valleys; the Karnaphulí and Pheni flow transversely across the main line of the hills, and the valleys here are formed by large tributaries of the Karnaphulí entering the river at right angles to its course. The general aspect of the District has been described as 'a tangled mass of hill, ravine, and cliff, covered with dense tree, bush, and creeper jungle. The intervals between the smaller hill ranges are filled up with a mass of jungle, low hills, small water-courses, and swamps of all sizes and descriptions, so erratic in their configuration as to render any description impossible. . . . From the summits of the main ranges, the view of the apparently boundless sea of forest is grand in the extreme. Viewed from these points, the lower jungle almost assumes the appearance of a level green plain, while in reality it is one of the most difficult countries to pass through that can be imagined.' Along the valleys and courses of the chief rivers, the scenery is of a different character, being for the most part dull and uninteresting. The banks of the rivers are generally covered with tall elephant grass or dense jungle, which effectually prevents any view being obtained of the surrounding country. There are, however, some striking exceptions to this account of the river scenery; and Captain T. H. Lewin (to whose *Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein*, this article is greatly indebted) has described in very eloquent language the scenes which are occasionally to be met with. Near Rángámátí, on the Karnaphulí river, for example, 'the character of the scenery'—writes Captain T. Herbert Lewin—'changes from its usual dull monotony of reaches of still water and walls of dark-green verdure, to a scene of marvellous beauty, resembling somewhat the view on the Rhine near the Lurleiberg. Dark cliffs of brown vitreous rock, patched and mottled with lichens and mosses of various colours, tower up on either hand; while, occasionally, on the right or left, shoots back a dark gorge of impenetrable jungle.' The same writer describes exquisite bits of scenery along some of the affluents of the Mátámurí river. The chief rivers of the District have already been named, and will be found fully described under their respective names. The most important of them, the Karnaphulí, called by the hillmen Kynsa Khyoung, rises in a lofty range of hills to the north-east, and, after flowing by a most tortuous course through the Hill Tracts, enters Chittagong District at the village of Chandraguná. The

Sangu, which rises in the hill range dividing the District from Arakan, after a course, generally northerly, of about 125 miles, reaches Bandárban, below which point it is affected by the tide. The Pheni forms the northern boundary of the District. The mountains of the District are steep, and can only be ascended slowly and painfully by men, along known zig-zag paths, or by cutting similar tracks through the jungle with which they are covered. The highest hills are—Ráng-ráng-dang (2789 feet) and Luráin Tang (2355 feet), both peaks in the Tyambang range; and Basitang (2181 feet), the principal peak of a range of the same name. Valuable forest trees are found throughout almost the entire area of the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Nearly the whole area (5670 square miles) was, in 1871, declared to be Government forest; and the collection of all the revenue tolls in the District, which had previously been leased to the hill chiefs, was transferred to the Forest Department. The amount realized by Government in 1870-71, by leasing out the right to levy tolls on forest produce, was £1013; the amount realized by the Forest Department at its 19 toll stations in 1874-75 was £11,162, the expenditure incurred during the year being only £1440. Elephants are found in great numbers, and a considerable portion of the Government supply is derived from the forests of this District. During the years 1866-68, the officers of the Elephant (*Khedá*) Department captured and took away no fewer than 200 of these animals. The rhinoceros is common, and tigers are numerous. Among other animals met with are the leopard, the Malay black bear, the jungle cat, the wild buffalo, the barking deer, the *sámbhar* deer, the lemur, and several kinds of monkeys. Snakes are eaten by the hill people, and are eagerly sought after; numerous varieties are found. The boa-constrictor is common, and often grows to an enormous size. Amongst the birds of the District may be mentioned the Polyplectron and the *maturá* or Arakan pheasant, button quails, jungle fowl, wood pigeons, and a few partridges, wild duck, and snipe.

History.—The history of the Chittagong Hill Tracts is a record of constantly recurring raids on the part of the bordering hill tribes, against whom it has more than once been necessary to send punitive military expeditions. The earliest record of our dealings with the people of these hills is a letter from the Chief of Chittagong to Warren Hastings, the Governor-General, dated 10th April 1777, complaining of the violence and aggressions of a mountaineer named Rámu Khán, the leader of a band of Kukís or Lusháis. Again, in the end of the same year, military help was required 'for the protection of the inhabitants against the Kukís.' In 1860, the same tribe made a murderous raid into the Tipperah District, killing 186 British subjects, and taking 100 prisoners. In January of the following year, a military force was assembled at Barkal to punish the offenders. The village of the

chief, 18 miles north-east of Barkal, was found deserted and in flames; and the negotiations which followed for the pacification of the country ended in the submission of Rattan Puiya in October 1861. In 1864, 1865, and 1866, the Shendus made several raids; and between 1866 and 1871, the Haulong clan of Lusháis gave constant trouble. In 1870-71, this tribe perpetrated in Cáchár a series of raids of an unusually aggravated character, in the course of which the lives of several Europeans were sacrificed, and the daughter of a planter, together with many native British subjects, were carried away captive by the raiders. These outrages determined the Government to undertake effective reprisals. Two military columns entered the Lushái country simultaneously, one from Cáchár under General Bouchier, the other from Chittagong under General Brownlow. The operations of these columns, extending over a period of five months, were entirely successful; the captives were recovered, and the offending tribes tendered their submission, and were required to pay a heavy fine for their unprovoked attacks. Since that date, no disturbance has taken place. The Hill Tracts were separated from the Regulation District of Chittagong in 1860.

Population.—According to the Census of 1872, the Chittagong Hill Tracts contain a population of 63,054 persons, inhabiting 13,181 houses. The average density of the population is 9·16 per square mile, and the average number of houses, 1·91 per square mile. Classified according to sex, the number of males is 34,330, and of females, 28,724; proportion of males, 54·44 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—males, 12,889; females, 10,936; total, 23,825. The great majority of the population are either Chakmás or Maghs (more correctly, Kyoungthá), both of which races profess the Buddhist religion. The Chakmás number 28,097, or 44·56 per cent. of the population; and the Maghs, 22,060, or 34·98 per cent. These two great Buddhist races amount, therefore, to 79·55 per cent. of the total. The remainder consist of 11,800 belonging to various non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 570 Gurkhás, 381 Muhammadans, 142 Hindus, 3 Europeans, and 1 native Christian. The 1872 Census was taken by the three chiefs of the Hill Tracts—the Bohmong (Poang Rájá), the Kálindí Rání (head of the Chakmá tribe), and the Mong Rájá, Keojá Sen Chaudharí. These returns are not considered altogether trustworthy, and the Parliamentary Abstract for 1876-77 returns the population at 69,607. The principal source of revenue to the chiefs being a capitation tax, out of which they pay to Government a certain proportion as tribute, they systematically endeavour to make the numbers of their people less than is actually the case, believing that the object of Government is to obtain data whereon to build hereafter a claim for increased tribute. The tribes inhabiting the District are divided into two classes—(1) the Kyoungthá, or 'Children of the River,' who are of Arakanese origin, speak the ancient

Arakan dialect, and follow the Buddhist religion and customs; and (2) the Toungthá, or 'Children of the Hills,' who are either aborigines or of mixed origin, speak different dialects, and are more purely savages than the Kyoungthá. The Kyoungthá (or Jumiá Maghs, as they are also called) are subdivided into 15 clans; they all dwell in village communities, having a *roájá* or village head, through whom they pay revenue. The villages to the south of Karnaphulí river are subject to a chief called the Bohmong, who lives at Bandárban, on the Sangu river; while those to the north of the Karnaphulí acknowledge the supremacy of the Mong Rájá. Their spoken language is a dialect of Arakanese; the written character is the same as the Burmese. The Chakmás form numerically the largest tribe in the District. Although the majority of them do not speak Arakanese, Captain Lewin classes them with the Khyoungthá on account of the similarity of their habits. The name is sometimes spelt Tsakmá or Tsak, or, in Burmese, Thek. Mr. Hodgson believes that they are of aboriginal descent. The tribe is divided into 40 clans, each presided over by a hereditary *díwán* or headman, who decides disputes, etc. Although the Chakmás profess the Buddhist faith, they are, in consequence of their constant contact with Bengálís, gradually evincing a tendency towards Hinduism. In one point they differ from all the other hill tribes,—they are very averse to changing the sites of their villages, which are kept from generation to generation at one place. The Toungthá tribes, or 'Children of the Hills,' consist of the Tipperahs, Mrungs, Kumís, Mros, and Khyengs, all tributary and entirely under British control; the Bangís and Pankhos, who, although paying no revenue, are subject to our influence; and the Lusháis or Kukís, and the Shendus, who are entirely independent. These tribes are in every respect wilder than the Kyoungthá, and less amenable to civilisation. Their villages are generally situated on lofty hills, and are difficult of access. Their clothing is extremely scanty, and their women do not hold so high a position as those of the Kyoungthá tribes. 'They worship the natural elements, and have vague and undefined ideas of some divine power which overshadows all.' Detailed accounts of the manners and customs of each of the tribes of the District will be found in Captain Lewin's valuable work already referred to.

There are no towns of any importance in the District. The largest village is BANDARBAN, the residence of the Bohmong, which has a population of about 3000. Apart from the military police force, the Government servants, and a few Bengalí shopkeepers, the whole population is agricultural.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop of the District. It is sown in April or May, and reaped in August, September, or October, according to the kind of crop. There are fourteen principal varieties, with

numerous subdivisions, differing more or less in colour and size of the grain and husk. The method of cultivation is that known as *júm*, which has been well described by Captain Lewin, from whose book, already referred to, the following account is condensed. In April, a convenient piece of forest land is fixed upon, generally on a hillside. This is cleared by cutting away the undergrowth and denuding the larger trees of their lower branches. The fallen jungle is then allowed to dry in the sun, and in May it is fired. If it has thoroughly dried, and no rain has fallen since the *júm* was cut, this firing reduces all but the large forest trees to ashes, and burns the soil to the depth of an inch or two. The charred trees and logs previously cut down remain lying about the ground, and have to be dragged off the *júm*. They are piled up all round, and form, with the addition of brushwood, a sort of fence to keep out wild animals. Nothing now remains to be done, until the gathering of heavy clouds and the grumbling of thunder herald the approach of the rains. Then all is activity; and the *júm* is planted with the mixed seeds of cotton, rice, melons, pumpkins, yams, and a little Indian corn. If, shortly afterwards, or better still, during the process of sowing, rain falls, a good harvest may be expected. The *júms*, which are always in clusters, are carefully watched to protect them from wild pig and deer, which would otherwise play havoc among the young rice; and the crop must be kept clear of weeds by hand labour. The first to ripen is Indian corn, about the end of July; next melons, of two or three sorts; afterwards vegetables of all kinds; and in September, the rice and other grain. In October, the cotton crop is gathered, and this ends the harvest. The rice, having been cut, is beaten from the ear in the *júm;* it is afterwards rolled up in rough, straw-covered bales, and carried to the village granary. The crops grown for export are cotton, tobacco, tea, and potatoes. During the last few years, attempts have been made to introduce plough cultivation, but as yet (1875) without success. In order to put a stop to the extortion of money-lenders, who charged exorbitant rates of usury for advances to the hillmen, the Government sanctioned advances without interest, the amount not to exceed the money to be expended on local works during the next season. The advances are repaid by labour; and under this system the price of the labour of the hillmen during November, December, and January may be estimated at 7½d. a day. During the cultivating season, local labour is not obtainable even at the rate of 2s. a day, and coolies from Chittagong District have to be engaged, whose average daily wage is 6¾d. each. The price of rice in 1870 was 6s. 3d. per cwt. for the best, and 4s. 1½d. for the common description. Paddy sold in that year at 1s. 9d. per cwt. for the best, and 1s. 4d. per cwt. for the coarser quality. Prices vary much in different parts of the District. In order that the *júm* mode of cultiva-

tion may be successful, the cultivator must move every year to a fresh piece of jungle land, so that tenures, properly so called, only exist where the indigenous system of cultivation has been abandoned. Land tenures are, indeed, found within the boundaries of the Chittagong Hill Tracts; but, with the exception of forest and grass land settlements, they are merely extensions of those in the Regulation District of Chittagong, and only differ from them in that they now lie beyond the Collector's jurisdiction.

Natural Calamities. — Pigs, deer, monkeys, and birds are very destructive to the crops, which require to be watched day and night. Armies of rats occasionally overrun the District, and commit great havoc; they eat both standing corn and the grain in the houses of the hill people, and disappear from the Hill Tracts as suddenly as they come. Loss of crops from flood is scarcely possible in this hilly country, but cotton is sometimes injured by a too heavy rainfall, especially when this occurs at the beginning of the rains.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The chief imports of the Chittagong Hill Tracts are rice and salt. Of unhusked rice, 439 tons, and of salt, 378 tons were imported in 1874-75. The most valuable export is raw cotton, of which 2015 tons were sent out of the District in 1874-75. The chief markets are at Kásálang, Rángámátí, Chandraguná, Bandárban, and Mánikcharí. The roads in the Hill Tracts are mere foot-paths; and even where they have been made of considerable width, there is so little traffic that the jungle has again sprung up and left only enough clear space to enable persons to walk in single file.

Administration.—In 1846-47, the whole revenue of the Hill Tracts consisted of the capitation tax, amounting to £1180; and it was not until 1866-67 that any attempt was made to improve the revenue. In that year, it amounted to £3394, while the total expenditure was £8440. In 1870-71, the revenue amounted to £4206, and the expenditure to £14,332. By 1874-75, the total revenue had increased (owing mainly to the collection of river-tolls having been made over to the Forest Department) to £12,799; while the expenditure was £19,404, of which £14,804 was on account of the military police maintained for the protection of the frontier, leaving only £4600 for all other expenses of administration. The machinery for the protection of person and property in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, although called by the name of police, is essentially a military force, trained and expensively armed so as to serve as a protection to the District against raids from the tribes farther east. The total strength of this force in 1872 was 656 men, or 1 man to every $10\frac{1}{2}$ square miles of area, or to every 96 of the population. The cost of maintenance (payable wholly from imperial revenue) is equal to £1, 19s. per square mile, or 4s. 3d. per head of population. There is no jail in the Hill Tracts; convicts being sent to

Chittagong town. Two Government schools have recently (1875) been established in the District, at Rángámátí and Mánikcharí. They are both boarding-schools; and although free tuition, together with the payment of all ordinary expenses, is offered in order to induce the most promising boys to attend, the greatest difficulty is experienced in getting the hill people to send their sons.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Hill Tracts is cool, and to natives healthy, though the reverse is the case with strangers. The most unhealthy month is September, at the close of the rains, and fever of a bad type is then very prevalent.

Chitta Pahár.—Mountain range in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, having the general form of a wedge or triangle, whose base rests upon the left bank of the Indus, near the town of Nára, while its apex stretches to the Margala Pass, about 50 miles to the eastward. The broadest portion has a depth of some 12 miles. The range derives its name from the white nummulitic limestone of which it is composed. Here and there patches of acacia or wild olive clothe its rugged sides, but over the main portion a coarse grass forms the only vegetation. No rivers of any importance rise upon its slopes, the western end being drained by gorges which debouch directly into the Indus, while ravines on the northern and southern declivities carry off the surface water into minor streams on either side. The separate hills assume most fantastic shapes, being furrowed by broad glens, and interspersed with conical hillocks; while the dark red or purple colour of the soil contrasts strongly with the white or blue-grey tint of the underlying rock. No human habitations exist upon the range; lime is produced in considerable quantities from quarries on its side.

Chittivalása.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 56′ 20″ N., long. 83° 29′ 30″ E.; houses, 414; pop. (1871), 1477. Situated on the road from Bimlipatam to Vizianágaram and Chicacole, the Chittivalása and Gostháni rivers being here bridged. Large jute factory and travellers' bungalow.

Chittivalása (or Bimlipatam).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras, rising in lat. 18° 16′ N., long. 83° 6′ E., at the foot of the Golconda Hill, and, after a south-easterly course of 58 miles (during which it passes Gopalapalli, Jáini, and other towns), flowing into the sea at Bimlipatam. At Chittivalása, a few miles from its mouth, it is bridged for the trunk road.

Chittúr.—*Táluk* of North Arcot District, Madras. Houses, 36,630; pop. (1871), 213,045, being 206,518 Hindus, 6153 Muhammadans (chiefly Sunnis), and 374 Christians. Chief Town, Chittúr.

Chittúr (*'Little Town'*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 13° 13′ 20″ N., long. 79° 8′ 10″ E.; houses, 894; pop. (1871), 5572. Situated in the valley of the Poini river, 18 miles north of the Vellore

railway station, and 100 by road from Madras. Being the headquarters of the District administration, it contains the courts of the Judge and Collector, with their subordinate establishments, District jail, school, dispensary, etc. Chittúr was a military station until 1874, but is now, except as the official centre, of no importance. Formerly a private estate of the Arcot family, and in 1781 occupied by the British troops under Sir Eyre Coote. Civil disturbances necessitated in 1804 the realization of the revenue by means of a military force.

Chittúr.—Town in the State of Cochin, Madras. Lat. 10° 42′ 30″ N., long. 76° 44′ E.; houses, 2263; pop. (1875), 11,103, chiefly Nairs, Vallálas, and weavers. Being the headquarters of the State, it contains one of the Rájá's palaces and the native official establishments. The Bráhmans inhabit a separate quarter by themselves.

Chitwádi.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 17′ N., long. 76° 47′ 16″ E.; pop. (1871), 3116. Situated 2 miles from Hospet, and the same distance from the Tungabhadra river. The chief market for the western *táluks*, and for goods imported from the Nizám's Dominions.

Chitwáil (*Chitivelu*).—Town in Cuddapah (Kadápa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 10′ 30″ N., long. 79° 24′ 29″ E.; houses, 1571; pop. (1871), 3447. Formerly the capital of a petty kingdom, the Poligár of Chitwáil being one of the chief Hindu lieutenants of the Vijáyanagar kings on the western side of the Gháts; and till 1802, when the Poligár was dispossessed and pensioned by the British, the headquarters town of an estate (*polliem*) of the same name.

Chobári.—One of the petty States in North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 3 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £521; tribute is payable of £15 to the British Government, and £4, 10s. to Junágarh.

Chok.—One of the petty States in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £680; tribute is payable of £39 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2, 6s. to Junágarh.

Chokahátu ('*Place of Mourning*').—Village in the Tamár *parganá*, in the south-east of Lohárdagá District, Bengal. It takes its name from a large burial-ground, covering an area of 7 acres, and containing more than 7000 tombs, which is still used by the Mundas of Chokahátu, and 9 surrounding villages.

Chokampatti.—Estate in Tinnevelli District, Madras, lying between 8° 58′ and 9° 10′ N. lat., and between 77° 23′ and 77° 32′ E. long. Formerly of considerable importance, but now split up into 18 sub-holdings. The chief town, Chokampatti, situated in lat. 90° 8′ N., long. 77° 24′ 20″ E., contains 1431 houses, with (1871) 5371 inhabitants.

Chola (*Choda;* in Asoka's inscriptions, *Chora;* the *Chorai* of Ptolemy; *Choliya* of Hiouen Thsang; and *Sora* of Pliny).—An ancient

division of Dravida, conterminous, roughly, with the Tamil country north of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, and having its capital near the site of the modern Trichinopoli. In the 10th century, the Chola kings conquered the neighbouring kingdom of Chera and Pándya, and over-ran the whole country down to Cape Comorin, becoming the paramount power of the south, and giving princes to Telingána. The tradition as to the common origin of these three kingdoms (*see* CHERA) is borne out by the fact that the language of the Cholas never differed from that of the Pándyas, and but little from that of Chera, as appears from the Indo-Syrian and Jewish inscriptions of the 8th century. By whatever local or dynastic names they called themselves—whether Cholas, Cheras, or Pándyas—they continued to be called Dravidas, and the language they spoke was everywhere known as Dravida or Tamil. The modern term Coromandel is a corruption of Cholamandalam, 'the realm of the Cholas.'—*See* CHERA.

Chola.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 1157 souls. Distant from Bulandshahr 7 miles south-west, from Khurja 8½ miles north-west. Station on East Indian Railway, 3½ miles west of the village. Stage on the military route from Alígarh to Delhi.

Chope.—Small coal-field situated in the valley of the Moháni river, Hazáribágh District, Bengal; about 8 miles in a direct line a little north of west from Hazáribágh town. Elevation, about 2000 feet above the sea. This field, which takes its name from the principal village in the vicinity, is the smallest known in India, covering an area of only three-quarters of a square mile. The coal is consequently very limited in quantity, and, as it is also of poor quality, the field is of little value. It is approached from Hazáribágh by a road which, for the most part, passes over alluvium, but in its vicinity there are occasional outcrops of metamorphic rocks, some of which are accompanied by extremely rich deposits of iron.—*See* HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT.

Chopra.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Khandesh District, Bombay; 8 miles from the right bank of the river Tápti, 51 miles north-east of Dhuliá, and 32 north-west of Bhusáwal; in 21° 15′ 15″ N. lat., and 75° 20′ 25″ E. long. Pop. (1872), 13,699; municipal revenue (1874-75), £230; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. Post office and dispensary. Large trade in cotton and linseed.

Chorangla.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 3¾ square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £240. Tribute of £9, 10s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is named Ráwal Rám Sinh.

Chotá Nágpur.—*See* CHUTIA NAGPUR; for Chotá Bhágirathi, Chotá Udepur, etc., *see* CHHOTA BHAGIRATHI, CHHOTA UDAIPUR, etc.

Choti.—Town in the District of Derá Gházi Khán, Punjab. Lat.

29° 50′ 30″ N., long. 70° 32′ E.; pop. (1868), 7300, comprising 419 Hindus, 6843 Muhammadans, and 38 'others.' Collection of scattered hamlets, with little pretension to rank as a town.

Chotíla.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 35 villages, with 9 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £2187, of which £65 is payable as tribute to the British Government, and £22 to Junágarh.

Chowghat.—Town in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* CHAUGHAT.

Chuádángá.—Subdivision of Nadiyá District, Bengal, lying between 23° 22′ 15″ and 23° 50′ 15″ N. lat., and between 88° 41′ and 89° 4′ E. long. Area, 439 square miles, with 482 towns or villages, and 46,419 houses. Pop. (1872), Muhammadans, 131,936; Hindus, 104,545; Christians, 610; 'others,' 332; total, 237,423, viz. 118,221 males and 119,202 females. Proportion of males, 49·8 per cent. Average density of population, 541 per square mile; houses per square mile, 106; persons per village, 493; persons per house, 5·1. The Subdivision comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Alamdángá, Chuádángá, Damurhudá, Kalupol, and Jibannagar. In 1870-71, it contained one revenue and magisterial court, with a regular police force 60 strong, besides 508 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen; the total cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £3607.

Chuádángá.—Principal village of the Chuádángá Subdivision, Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Churni river, on the road from Jhanidah to Mihrpur. Lat. 23° 38′ 45″ N., long. 88° 53′ 55″ E. A station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 83½ miles north from Calcutta.

Chuchana.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £229; tribute of £32 is paid to the British Government.

Chuláła.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £230; tribute of £97 is paid to the British Government, and £8 to Junágarh.

Chunchangiri.—Hill in Hassan District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 1′ N., long. 76° 49′ E. At its foot is held a *játra* or religious gathering, called Gangádhareswara, at which 10,000 persons assemble, and which lasts fifteen days.

Chunchankatte.—Dam across the Káveri (Cauvery) river in Mysore District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 31′ N., long. 76° 20′ E. Constructed advantageously a short distance from the head of a narrow gorge, and a few hundred yards above the cascade or rapids of Chunchan, which have a fall of 70 feet. The Rámasamudaram channel, leading from this dam, has a course of 26 miles, and irrigates 1300

acres; revenue, £1211. Both dam and channel were constructed by Chekka Deva Wodeyár, Rájá of Mysore (1672-1704). An annual festival, held near the falls in January, is attended by 2000 people.

Chundernagore.—French settlement in Húgli District, Bengal.—*See* CHANDARNAGAR.

Chunián.—*Tahsíl* of Lahore District, Punjab, lying between 30° 37′ and 31° 22′ N. lat., and between 73° 40′ and 74° 28′ E. long., occupying the western half of that portion of the District which lies within the Bári Doáb. Area, 1184 square miles; pop. (1868), 167,465; density per square mile, 141 persons.

Chunián.—Municipal town in Lahore District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 30° 58′ N., long. 74° 1′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 7355, including 3090 Hindus, 3410 Muhammadans, 461 Síkhs, and 394 'others.' Formerly divided into three fortified hamlets, one of which is now in ruins, while the other two have completely coalesced. *Tahsíli*, and police station. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £418, or 1s. 3⅜d. per head of population (6469) within municipal limits.

Chura.—Tributary State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 23′ and 22° 30′ N. lat., and between 71° 37′ and 71° 51′ E. long. Estimated pop. (1875), 13,793, distributed over 13 villages.. Estimated gross revenue, £12,500. The appearance of the country is flat, relieved at intervals by ranges of low rocky hills. The climate, though hot and dry, is healthy, the only prevailing disease being fever. The soil is generally light, producing besides the ordinary grains considerable quantities of cotton, which finds its way to the port of Dholerá. Chura ranks as a 'third-class' State among the many petty States in Káthiáwár. The ruler first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The present chief, Bechar Sinhjí, a Jahlá Rájput, bears the title of Thákur. He maintains a military force of 135 men, and pays a tribute of £714 to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. There is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture.

Chura.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Káthiáwár, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 29′ N., long. 71° 44′ E.; pop. (1872), 13,793.

Churáman.—Village in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the east or left bank of the Mahánanda river. Lat. 25° 26′ N., long. 88° 9′ 30″ E. Of considerable importance as a seat of trade, the principal export being rice.

Churáman.—Port on the Gammái river, a branch of the Kánsbáns, Balasor District, Orissa. Lat. 21° 7′ 50″ N., long. 86° 49′ 16″ E. The mouth of the river has now silted up, and is so completely concealed by a dense fringe of jungle, that it is almost impossible

for a stranger sailing down the coast to discover it. At present, no vessel exceeding 45 tons burden can enter the river, even at high water. The rice sloops, which nominally receive their cargo at Churáman, and its sister port, Láichanpur on the Kánsbáns, 5 miles to the north, in reality load from small boats while at anchor several miles out at sea, 6 miles being no uncommon distance in the case of sloops of 150 tons. Local tradition asserts that within recent times Churáman was the principal port of Orissa, and this is corroborated by reference to the old records. In 1809, the Balasor collector of customs wrote that 'Churáman is considered the most safe and convenient port on the coast of Orissa, and carries on a sea-going trade exceeding that of Balasor;' and again, in 1812, he reported that 'last year, no less a quantity than 1,100,000 *maunds* of rice were exported from the port of Churáman and rivers contiguous thereto.' In 1873-1874, the value of the imports of Churáman and Láichanpur, taken together, amounted to £251, and of the exports to £13,831; in 1874-75, the imports were *nil*, and the exports £5834 in value.

Churesar.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay; area, 1½ square mile. It is under the rule of six chiefs. Estimated revenue in 1875, £80; tribute of £31 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Chúrú.—Town in Bikaner (Bickaneer) State, Rájputána. Lat. 28° 19′ 15″ N., long. 75° 1′ E. Estimated pop. (1875), about 10,000. Several trade routes converge here.

Chutiá.—Village in Lohárdaga District, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; situated 2 miles east of Ránchi town, in lat. 23° 21′ 20″ N., long. 85° 23′ 45″ E. Contains an ancient temple in a small square enclosure, with four flanking bastions, and a well in the centre, which is approached by a gradually descending covered passage. This village was the original residence of the Rájás of Chutiá Nágpur, and is said to have given its name to the State. In the temple are two stone images of Rámá and Sitá, under the care of a resident Bráhman.

Chutiá Nágpur.—Division or Commissionership of Bengal, lying between 21° 58′ 30″ and 24° 48′ N. lat., and between 83° 22′ and 87° 15′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Mírzápur, Sháhábád, and Gayá; on the east by Monghyr, the Santál Parganás, Bánkurá, and Midnapur; on the south by the Orissa Tributary States; and on the west by the Sambalpur District of the Central Provinces, and the Independent State of Rewah. This Division comprises the British Districts of Hazáribágh, Lohárdaga, Singbhúm, Mánbhúm, and 7 Tributary States known as the Chutiá Nágpur *Mahals*,—all of which see separately. Area, 43,901 square miles, with 25,766 villages or towns and 752,287 houses. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 2,567,292; Muhammadans, 169,006; Christians, 15,798; and 'others,' consisting of tribes still professing aboriginal faiths, 1,073,475; total, 3,825,571, viz. 1,933,380

males and 1,892,191 females. Proportion of males in total population, 50·5 per cent. Average density of population, 87 per square mile; average number of houses, 17 per square mile; persons per village, 148; inmates per house, 5·1.

Chutiá Nágpur Tributary States.—A collection of small Native States in the western portion of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, lying between the valley of the Son and that of the Upper Mahánadi, and extending from lat. 21° 35′ to 24° 6′ 30″ N., and from long. 81° 37′ to 84° 31′ 55″ E. Bounded on the north by Rewah State and Mirzápur District in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by Lohárdaga and Singbhúm Districts; on the south by the Tributary States of Orissa and Sambalpur District in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Biláspur District in the Central Provinces, and by Rewá State. These States are 7 in number, viz. (1) BONAI, (2) CHANG BHAKAR, (3) GANGPUR, (4) JASHPUR, (5) KOREA, (6) SARGUJA, and (7) UDAIPUR,—all of which see separately in their alphabetical arrangement. The physical contour of the Tributary States is a confused mass of hills, ravines, and plateaux, which have been sculptured into their present shape by the combined action of rivers, wind, and rain. It is probable, indeed, that at a remote geological period, the entire country formed a uniform tableland about 3600 feet above the sea. Traces of such a state of things are to be found in the peculiar flat-topped hills, locally known as *páts*. These *páts* are capped with a horizontal stratum of trap rock, and stand up like pillars of earth left in making excavations, as if to mark the progress of the work of denudation. A distinct watershed can be traced right across the States from east to west, with a slight inclination towards the south. From the northern slope of this watershed, the Kanhár and Rehr pass off to join the river system of Behar; while on the south, the Bráhmaní, Ib, and Mána flow direct towards the Bay of Bengal. Total area of the States, 15,419 square miles, with 3001 villages and 80,870 houses. Pop. (1872) classified according to religion—Hindus, 139,781, or 34·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 2348, or 0·6 per cent.; 'others,' consisting of aboriginal hill people still professing their primitive faiths, 263,851, or 65 per cent.; total, 405,980, viz. 205,925 males and 200,055 females. Proportion of males, 50·7 per cent. Average density of population, 26 per square mile; number of houses per square mile, 5; persons per village, 135; inmates per house, 5. Classified ethnically, the Census returns were as follows:—Aboriginal tribes (Kolarian and Dravidian), 230,034; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 101,849; Hindus, 71,749; Muhammadans, 2348.

Administrative History.—These States, now under the political superintendence of the Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur, belong politically to two separate clusters, known as the Sambalpur and

Sargujá groups. The southern or Sambalpur group, comprising Bonái and Gángpur, together with eight other States now under the Central Provinces, was ceded to the British Government in 1803 under the treaty of Deogaon by Raghojí Bhonslá II., the Marhattá Rájá of Nágpur. In 1806, the entire group, with the exception of Ráigarh, was restored to the Rájá gratuitously. In 1818, however, they again reverted to the British under a provisional agreement concluded with Madhojí Bhonslá (Apá Sáhib), after the repulse of his treacherous attack upon the Nágpur Residency; and finally passed to us under the treaty of 1826, when Raghojí Bhonslá III., the successor of Apá Sáhib, attained his majority. On the provisional cession of the States in 1818, it was found necessary to annul the feudal supremacy of the Rájá of Sambalpur; and in 1821, separate *sanads* were made to each of the subordinate chiefs, and the tribute was fixed on a lower scale than had been formerly payable. Up to 1860, the Sambalpur States were administered from Ránchí in Lohárdaga by the Governor-General's Agent for the south-west frontier. In that year, they were all, except Bonái and Gángpur, placed under the Superintendent of the Orissa Tributary States, and soon afterwards incorporated with the new Commissionership of the Central Provinces. Bonái and Gángpur remain attached to Chutiá Nágpur. The northern or Sargujá group of States embraces Cháng Bhakár, Jashpur, Koreá, Udáipur, and the large State of Sargujá, which last in early times exercised an ill-defined feudal supremacy over the rest. This group was first ceded to the British under the provisional agreement concluded with Madhojí Bhonslá (Apá Sáhib) in 1818, and is not mentioned in the subsequent treaty of 1826. Under the rough military rule of the Marhattá dynasty of Nágpur, the position of the tributary chiefs was of necessity uncertain and fluctuating. At one time, they were held in severe check by a strong local governor, and at another, left in almost complete independence. The British Government adhere to the latter system, and from the first declined to lay down any definite rules for the guidance of the chiefs. Only a general line of policy was indicated; and the ascertained rights of the chiefs, and of all classes of their subjects, together with such customs as were not inconsistent with the usages of civilised nations, were to be maintained in full. In the settlements made with the chiefs, they were expressly authorized to realize from their subjects both rents and customary dues, with the exception of certain cesses which were prohibited as obstructive to trade. Separate engagements were also taken from each chief, binding him to the right administration of the judicial and police powers entrusted to him. Precise rules for the administration of criminal justice were first promulgated in 1863, under which the chiefs have power to fine up to the extent of £5, or to inflict imprisonment with

or without hard labour for two years. Another provision empowers them to pass sentence of imprisonment up to five years, or to fine to the extent of £20; but all such sentences are referred to the Commissioner for confirmation. In all cases of heinous crime, for which a sentence of five years' imprisonment appears inadequate, the chiefs in the capacity of magistrates regularly remit the cases to the Commissioner, who tries the accused, and passes sentence. Sentences of death must be submitted to Government for confirmation. The total tribute paid by the chiefs amounts to £468, and most of them are also bound to supply a contingent for military service, if required. Their estimated revenue is approximately returned at £26,400. The police system of the States is purely indigenous, and consists for the most part of the rural militia, who hold their lands on condition of rendering personal service to their chiefs. On the whole, there is very little heinous crime. Murders occur occasionally, as might be expected among half-civilised races; but serious offences against property are rare, and petty crime is sufficiently dealt with by the chiefs under the supervision of the Commissioner. A characteristic feature of the crime returns is the number of charges of defamation of character brought by women who have been denounced as witches. The belief in witchcraft still survives in full strength; and in 1873, two reputed witches were murdered, and others maltreated, in Gángpur.

Circars, The Northern (*Sarkár*, 'a government').—The historical name for a large tract of country lying between 15° 40′ and 20° 17′ N. lat., and between 79° 12′ and 85° 20′ E. long., along the coast of the Bay of Bengal, within the Madras Presidency. It extended over about 17,000 square miles, and corresponded in general outline with the British Districts of Ganjám, Vizagapatam, Godávari, Kistna, and part of Nellore and Karnúl (Kurnool), stretching from the Chilká Lake, its northern limit, to the Gandlakamma river, its southern boundary. Previous to the Muhammadan period, it was known by the Hindu names of Kalinga, Telingána, and Andhra. On the east it was bounded by the sea, and on the west by the hills running from the Godávari to Gumsar (Goomsur), which separated it throughout from the Nizám's Dominions. In breadth, the Northern Circars ranged from 18 to 100 miles.

From the 5th to the 11th centuries, the north of this tract was subject to the Kesari or Lion-kings of Orissa. In the 12th century appeared the Gajapati dynasty (the Elephant-kings), whose rule extended southwards to the Godávari, the Narapatis (Lords of men) reigning contemporaneously over the southern portion (*see* CONJEVARAM). In the 15th century, a disputed succession in Ganjám led to Muhammadan interference. Muhammad Sháh, the last but one of the Báhmini dynasty of the Deccan, being appealed to by one of the claimants, invested him with the title in dispute, and extended his dominion as a tributary

over the countries of Kondapalli (Condapilly), Rájámahendri (Rájahmundry), and Ellore, as far south as the present British District of Nellore. In the 16th century, the Báhmini dynasty succumbed, and their tributary protectorate in the Circars passed, not without a struggle with the chiefs of the northern divisions, under the power of the Kutab Sháhí princes. In the 17th century, the Kutab Sháhí dominions fell to Aurangzeb; but for thirty years no serious attempt was made to impose the Delhi rule upon the Circars. Early in the 18th century, however, the office of Súbahdár of the Deccan was created; and Nizám-ul-Mulk, the first incumbent, appointed two lieutenants to the governments of the coast Provinces—Anwár-ud-dín, afterwards Nawáb of the Karnatic, being placed over Chicacole and the north, and Rústam Khán over Rájámahendri and the south. The Northern Circars at this time comprised the 5 divisions of Chicacole, Kondapalli, Rájámahendri, Ellore, and Gantúr (Guntoor). Chicacole, or Kalinga, comprising the present Vizagapatam and Ganjám Districts, with portion of the adjoining country, was subdivided into Itchapúr, Kasímkota, and Chicacole, the Púndi river forming its northern boundary. For a time this division was known to the Muhammadans as Gulchanábád. Rájámahendri extended to Coconada, while south of it to the Kistna was Kondapalli. Between Kondapalli and the southern branch of the Godávari, lay Ellore; and still farther south, to Ongole, stretched Gantúr (Guntoor). Besides these was the coast strip known as Masulipatam *havíli*, held as a personal estate by the reigning power, and in which lay Masulipatam, the chief town and fortress of the Northern Circars. To all these the Muhammadans gave new names; but it is noteworthy that none have survived. In 1750, Muzaffar Jang succeeded to the Subahdárship of the Deccan, and ceded Masulipatam, with the country adjacent, to the French, by whose assistance he had obtained his position. Two years later, his successor, Salábat Jang, extended the grant to the whole of the Northern Circars. M. Bussy, who was appointed to the government of the new tract, united the whole, not, however, without great trouble in CHICACOLE, BOBBILI, and other places, under the titular chiefship of Vijáyarám, Rájá of Vijáyanagar. He was succeeded by Anandaráj Gajapati, who, after making offers in vain to our Madras Government (then embarrassed by the French besieging the capital), surrendered the Circars to our Bengal chiefs. Lord Clive at once sent an army southwards, which, after defeating the French, stormed Masulipatam. A treaty was concluded with Salábat Jang, by which all the territory dependent on Masulipatam, about 80 miles in length and 20 in breadth, was ceded to the British. In 1761, Nizám Alí supplanted Salábat Jang; and in the following year, four of the Circars were offered by him to the East India Company on condition of affording military aid. The

offer was refused; but in 1766 we obtained a grant for all the five Circars from the Delhi court. To secure the possession, the fort of Kondapalli was seized, and a treaty of alliance signed with Nizám Alí at Haidarábád (Hyderabad), November 12, 1766. By this treaty the Company, in consideration of 'the grant of the Circars,' engaged to maintain troops at an annual cost of £90,000, for the Nizám's assistance whenever required. Gantúr (or Kondavir, as it was sometimes called), being a personal estate of the Nizám's brother, Basálat Jang, was, as a matter of courtesy, excepted during his lifetime. Two years later, the Nizám having in the meantime associated himself with Haidar Alí against the Company, another treaty was signed (on the 1st of March 1768), in which he acknowledged the validity of the Delhi grant and resigned the Circars (Gantúr again excepted) to the Company, receiving, as a mark of friendship, £50,000 per annum. In 1769, the Circars were taken under direct management; and in 1778, Gantúr also was rented, by special treaty, from Basálat Jang, for his lifetime. In the following year, the Nizám was again in alliance with Haidar Alí, on the pretext that the Company had withheld payments due on account of the Circars; and the Government restored Gantúr to Basálat Jang for his life. He died in 1782; but it was not until 1788 that Gantúr came under British administration, and then on the promise of payment of £70,000 per annum. In 1823, this annual payment was consolidated into a lump payment, and the whole of 'the Northern Circars' thus became a British possession.

Circular Road Canal.—Canal in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; leading from the Húgli river at Bágh Bázár on the north of Calcutta, to the old toll-house on the Salt Water Lake. Length, 6 miles. Lat. 22° 34′ to 22° 36′ 30″ N., long. 88° 24′ 30″ to 88° 25′ 15″ E.

Cis-Sutlej States.—Tract of country in the Punjab, including the British Districts of Umballa (Ambála), Ludhiána, Firozpur (Ferozepore), and Hissár, and the Native States of Patiála, Jínd, and Nábha. The term was first applied to the Síkh principalities which arose to the south of the Sutlej (Satlaj) during the last years of the Delhi empire. After the suicidal contests of the Marhattás and the Duráni princes, the Síkhs began to cross over from the Punjab proper (*see* AMRITSAR DISTRICT) into the territory beyond the great boundary river, and soon acquired for themselves the whole stretch of country between the Sutlej and the Jumna valley. When the Marhattá power in Upper India fell before the British conquerors in 1803, the whole of this intervening tract was already parcelled out among numerous chieftains, from the powerful Rájá of the Patiála principality to the petty *sardárs* who held a few villages under a precarious sway. After the establishment of the British power to the east, the various Native

rulers continued to wage perpetual war upon one another, until the consolidation of the Lahore Government, under Ranjít Sinh, forced them to unite in resistance to the common enemy. The great Mahárájá at last appeared on the south of the Sutlej, and demanded tribute. Thereupon the Cis-Sutlej princes, fearing the fate which had befallen their brethren in the Punjab proper, united in 1808 in an application for aid to the British Government. Our authorities, who were then engaged in negotiations with Ranjít Sinh, accepted the proffered protectorate. The treaty of 1809 secured them from encroachment on the north; while a proclamation, issued in 1811, put an end to those internal wars which had previously wasted the energies of the various States. With this exception, however, the Chiefs still retained sovereign rights within their several principalities, having absolute civil, criminal, and fiscal jurisdiction, subject only to the supreme authority of the British Government. No tribute was demanded, and no contingent fixed; the only claim which the British advanced, in return for their protection, was the right to escheats, and to assistance in case of war. But after the outbreak of the first Síkh War, and during the Sutlej campaign of 1845, the chieftains failed to bring forward the stipulated military aid. At the conclusion of the war, the British Government accordingly resolved to place the jurisdiction of the Cis-Sutlej principalities upon an entirely new basis. The chieftains had in many cases exhibited an incapacity for just rule, so that it had become desirable in the interests of their subjects to check their fiscal exactions, and place the administration of justice in stronger hands. By a resolution, dated November 17, 1846, the Governor-General abolished the criminal jurisdiction of the chieftains, removed the internal transit or customs duties, and laid down a scale of tribute in commutation of the military service which the chiefs had neglected to perform. Patiála, Jínd, Nábha, Farídkot, Maler Kotlá, Chitrauli, Ráikot, Buriya, and Mandot obtained exemption from this arrangement; but all the other principalities were incorporated into a British Commissionership of the Cis-Sutlej States, with its headquarters at Umballa. It soon became apparent, however, that the Chiefs, deprived of their police jurisdiction, could not efficiently collect their revenue, and steps were taken for a regular assessment of the land under British officials; which measure, though temporarily postponed by the outbreak of the second Síkh war, was fully carried out after the completion of that campaign and the resulting annexation of the Punjab. In June 1849, accordingly, the British Government finally abolished the sovereign powers of the various chieftains, and assumed the complete criminal, civil, and fiscal authority throughout all the States, except the eight above enumerated. The whole administration devolved upon our newly formed Government at Lahore; and though the revenues still belonged to the various chieftains, the task

of assessment and collection fell upon the British officials. Since that date, various other States have lapsed from time to time, by death or forfeiture, to the British Government, and have been incorporated with one or other of the different Districts. For further details and statistics, *vide* the Districts of UMBALLA, LUDHIANA, FIROZPUR (FEROZEPORE), and HISSAR, and the Native States of PATIALA, JIND, and NABHA.

Closepet.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore. Area, 476 square miles; pop. (1871), 96,974; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £9939, or 2s. 2d. per cultivated acre.

Closepet.—Municipal Town in Bangalore District, Mysore; on right bank of the Arkavati river, 30 miles by road south-west of Bangalore. Lat. 12° 40′ N., long. 77° 12′ E.; pop. (1871), 5460, composed of 3778 Hindus, 1598 Muhammadans, and 84 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £38; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. Founded in 1800 by the Diwán Purnaiya, and named after the British Resident, Sir Barry Close. There are several religious buildings of the Hindu sects. The *sillidár* horse-breeding establishment has been removed to KUNIGAL. The Muhammadans were formerly much engaged in sericulture; but since the outbreak of disease among the silkworms, many of them have emigrated to the coffee Districts. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Cocanada. — Administrative Subdivision of Godávari District, Madras; comprising the *táluks* of Rámachandrapuram, Narasápuram, and Amalápuram. Also a *táluk* of the District, and as such containing 16,142 houses, with (1871) 66,944 inhabitants, including 64,755 Hindus, 1643 Muhammadans, and 484 Christians.

Cocanada (*Káki-náda*, 'Crow-country').—Municipal town and seaport in Godávari District, Madras. Situated on the coast 545 miles south of Calcutta, and 315 north of Madras, and connected by navigable canals with Samulkotta and the Godávari river at Dowlaishwaram. Lat. 16° 57′ N., long. 82° 13′ E.; houses, 2957; pop. (1871) (with Jaganádhapur), 17,839, including 16,650 Hindus, 575 Muhammadans, and 475 Christians. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £2480; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head. Being the headquarters of the District administration, it contains the courts of the Magistrate and his subordinates, jail, post and telegraph offices, schools, dispensary, etc.; and as the second seaport of the Presidency after Madras, it possesses the usual marine establishments, custom house, master attendants' office, etc. The European mercantile community numbers 185 persons. The municipality, about one square mile in extent, includes the older town of Jaganádhapur (formerly a Dutch settlement, made over to the British in 1825), which is connected with Cocanada proper by an iron bridge across the tidal creek. The returns for 1874-75 show that shipping of 249,475 tons burthen entered during the year; value of exports,

£826,100—of imports, £189,200. In 1864-65, the exports were valued at £491,000, and the imports at £44,540; the local commerce has, therefore, more than doubled during the decade. Principal export to Europe, cotton—grown in Godávari and Kistna Districts, pressed at Gantúr (Guntoor), and brought to Cocanada by canals; oil-seeds, sugar, and rice are also exported. The trade is carried on by English, French, and German vessels. The cotton traffic received a great impetus during the American war, this port being more convenient for large shipments than Masulipatam. The chief imports are iron, copper, sacks, and liquor. The roadstead, one of the safest on this dangerous coast, has been much injured of late by the shifting of the Hope Island and other shoals; and the lighthouse, erected in 1865, has from the same cause become almost useless.—*See* KORINGA.

Cochin. — Native State in subsidiary alliance with the British Government, and politically connected with the Presidency of Madras —called after the town of the same name, formerly its capital, but since its capture from the Dutch in 1795, a British possession, and included within the limits of the District of Malabar. That District bounds the State of Cochin on the west, north, and north-east; a small portion at the south-west is washed by the Arabian Sea; and the State of Travancore forms the southern boundary. It lies between 9° 48′ and 10° 50′ N. lat., and between 76° 5′ and 76° 58′ E. long.; and contains 7 Subdivisions—namely, Cochin, Cannanore, Mugundapuram, Trichúr, Tallapalli, Chittúr, and Kranganur. Total area, 1361 square miles; population in 1875, 601,114.

Physical Aspects.—The most striking physical feature of the country is the series of shallow lakes or backwaters, which receive the drainage of the numerous streams descending from the Western Gháts, and are consequently liable to great rises as these feeders swell, and to equally considerable reductions in volume as they dry up. One of these feeders, the Alwái, has been known to rise nearly 16 feet in twenty-four hours; and the backwater into which it flows sometimes continues swollen for months, while, in the dry season, it shrinks in many places to a depth of 2 feet, and even to 6 inches at the northern and southern extremities. The limits of the Cochin backwaters extend from north to south for a distance of about 120 miles, passing considerably beyond the boundary of the State. Their breadth varies from a maximum of 10 miles to not more than a few hundred yards; and they are very irregular in form, branching into a great number of intricate and shallow channels, containing several low alluvial islands. The communication with the sea is at three points—one at the city of Cochin, another at Kodungalúr or Kranganúr, and the third at Chetuwái or Chatwái. Though the backwaters are in most places shallow, navigation is at all times possible from Cochin to Kranganur, and from Cochin to Aleppi

or Aulapolái, both for passenger and cargo boats. During the rains, all parts are navigable by flat-bottomed boats; but for the conveyance of petty merchandise, canoes drawing little water are preferred. All the lands washed by the estuary, whether islands or enclosing banks, are low and swampy, and liable to be flooded during the monsoon inundations. They are in general densely covered with luxuriant cocoa-nut palms; and in such places as are embanked, great quantities of rice are grown.

The chief rivers of Cochin are the Ponáni, the Tattamangalam, the Karuvanur, and the Shalakúdi. The Alwái or Periyar also passes through a portion of the State. The timber of Cochin is amongst the most valuable of its products, the revenue derived from the forests in 1875-76 being £6781. The principal timber tract is Iruári in the north-east, which is covered with dense forests of teak-trees of enormous size, but less durable and elastic than timber of the same kind produced in Travancore and Malabar. It is consequently more in demand for building houses than for ships, for which latter purpose it is also rendered less suitable by being cut into short blocks, in order that it may be dragged to the torrents which sweep it down to the back-water. The violence with which it is carried down the streams often renders it unfit for purposes requiring wood of large dimensions. Other valuable descriptions of timber are *peon* or *pún* of which excellent masts are made; and blackwood, *angely*, jack, ben-teak, and bastard cedar. The only mineral products which contribute to the revenue of the State are laterite and granite; for though both gold and iron were at one time worked, these industries have now died out. The flora, however, abounds in plants of commercial value. Besides the timber-trees already mentioned, the hills afford a great variety of drug-, dye-, and gum-yielding shrubs; cardamoms are produced in many parts, and everywhere on the hills the jungle exhibits a splendid luxuriance of foliage and flowers. The fauna includes all the larger animals of Southern India—elephant, bison, bear, tiger, leopard, *sámbhar*, and ibex, with many varieties of deer. The cheetah, hyæna, wolf, fox, monkey, etc., are also found, and birds are very abundant, as also are snakes and other reptiles.

History.—The State arose out of the dismemberment of the Malayálam kingdom in the time of Cheruma Perumal, from whom, by right of lineal descent, the present Rájás of Cochin claim to hold their territory. Cheruma Perumal governed, as viceroy, the whole country of Kerála or Chera, including Travancore and Malabar, in the 9th century, and afterwards established himself as an independent ruler. Cochin early succumbed to the Portuguese, who, in the 16th century, built a fort, and established commercial and missionary relations with the adjoining districts. In 1599, the Archbishop of Goa convened a synod at Udiámpur, at which the tenets of the Syrian Christians, then a large

body, were declared heretical. In 1662, the Dutch took the town of Cochin from the Portuguese, and under their management it soon attained to great prosperity. A century later, the Zamorin of Calicut invaded the State, but was expelled by the Rájá of Travancore, who obtained, as a reward for this service, a portion of Cochin. In 1776, Haidar Alí, the ruler of Mysore, overran the country, compelling it to become tributary; and in 1790, his son, Tipú, entered the State, and laid it waste as far as Virapalái, when he was recalled to the defence of Seringapatam. It remained nominally under the authority of Tipú until the year 1792, when Mysore passed into the hands of the British. Already, in the preceding year, the Rájá of Cochin had signed an independent treaty with the Company, by which he acknowledged himself its tributary, and agreed to a yearly tribute of £10,000. In 1809, a conspiracy to assassinate the Resident and to commence hostilities against the British, necessitated the employment of troops. After the pacification of the State, another treaty was concluded, binding the Rájá to a yearly payment of £27,000, and admitting the right of the Company to control the distribution of its forces in the State, and to demand increased payments in proportion to any increase of military expenditure on behalf of the Rájá, it being provided that in no case should his income fall below £3500, in addition to one-fifth of the annual revenue. The Rájá engaged to hold no correspondence with any foreign State without the knowledge of the British Government, to admit no Europeans into his service, nor allow any to remain within his territory without the consent of the British authorities, who might dismantle or garrison any fortresses in his dominions. On the other hand, the British undertook to defend the territories of the Rájá against all enemies whatsoever. Subsequently, in 1819, the annual payment to the British Government was reduced to £24,000, being one-half of the estimated revenue at that time; and at a still later period, the tribute was fixed at £20,000, at which sum it remains at the present day. Since the date of this transfer of power to the British, Cochin has no history beyond that of internal reforms. In 1836, the transit dues were altogether abolished; and in 1848, the freedom of commercial intercourse between this State and the neighbouring Districts was completely established by the removal of the frontier customs barriers, thus, among other advantages, facilitating the passage of merchandise from Malabar and Coimbatore to the port of Cochin. In 1865, certain fiscal restrictions on the coasting trade of Cochin were removed, and the sum of £7529 was paid to the Rájá as compensation for the diminution of import and export duties.

Population.—The first Census recorded, that of 1820, returned the total population at 223,003; but the method adopted was defective, and it was not till 1875 that a satisfactory enumeration was accom-

plished. The total population then disclosed was 601,114 persons, inhabiting 120,220 houses; proportion of persons per square mile, 440; number per house, 5. The principal races are Malayális (535,191), Tamulians (33,628), Konkánis (15,113), and Telugus (9905). Divided according to religion, there were 426,922 Hindus, 12,499 Muhammadans, 140,262 Christians, and 1278 Jews. The Christians, who form about 23 per cent. of the population, belong for the most part to the Romano-Syrian Church, established here in 1659, and subject to the Archbishop of Malabar, or the orthodox Roman Catholic Church under the Archbishop of Goa. The Jacobite and Nestorian Churches, acknowledging the Patriarch of Antioch as their head, and established long before the period of European settlements, number many converts, a few being substantial landowners. The proportion of Christians is 3 per cent. higher than in the adjoining State of Travancore, and 21·5 per cent. more than in the Madras Presidency generally. The Christians are massed in the neighbourhood of the sea-coast backwaters and lagoons, and almost monopolize the boating and fishing industry. Arranged according to local precedence, the Hindu castes stand as follows:—(1) Bráhmans, who form 3·6 per cent. of the population, and are generally priests and proprietors of land; (2) Kshattriyas, also generally landowners; (3) Ambalavasis, temple servitors; (4) Nairs, superior agriculturists and Government servants; (5) Pillais, subordinate Government servants; (6) Ottars, contractors for labour; (7) Vallamars, fishermen, cloth-weavers, potters, and artisans of all kinds; (8) Ezhuwans, agricultural labourers; (9) Chermars, agricultural serfs; (10) hillmen. Of these, the first four may be described as well-to-do, and the two last as wretchedly poor. The chief hill tribe is that of the Malayers or Kaders, living on roots, leaves, mice, and small animals, without fixed settlements or ostensible occupation, except occasional basket-weaving. The Vallamars, who live by fresh-water fishing, number 4000, but the sea fisheries are monopolized by the Marakan caste, who are more numerous. A considerable trade in cured fish is carried on along the coast, emigrants from Ceylon coming over annually to engage in it during the fishing season. Immigration affects the population returns to the extent of about 8000 annually, the new-comers generally settling in the State. Enumerations of the population have been made five times during the last 55 years, and the result has been to show a great and continuous, though not always uniform, increase in numbers. The highest rate of increase has been obtained during the present administration, which has been marked also by the rapid development of the food resources of the country. Of late years, the increase per annum in Cochin has been 1·86 per cent.—a more rapid rate than in any of the chief European countries. It is estimated that the population would double

itself in 39 years. The density of the population is 441 persons per square mile—a number exceeded, however, in Tanjore. The luxuriant growth of the cocoa palm on the sea-shore and backwaters is the chief support of this heavy population. Little labour being entailed by this cultivation, abundant opportunity exists for further earnings. Nearly the whole produce of the country consists of special articles for export; the collection of which at the port of Cochin, by the endless network of canals, affords ample employment to boatmen, imported rice being distributed in the shape of return cargo. The fact that a sufficient fish diet is available at an almost nominal cost has an important bearing upon the material condition of the people.

The most populous towns are—ERNAKOLLAM, the capital, with 14,038 inhabitants; COCHIN, 13,775; TRICHUR, 11,109; and TRIPUNTHORA, the residence of the Rájá, 8493. Seven other towns have over 5000 inhabitants, and 47 others between 2000 and 4000, making the urban population 248,000, or 40 per cent. of the total. Smaller villages number 595, the average population being about 380. The tendency to gather into towns has become marked of late years, while the proportion of tiled houses annually increases.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple of cultivation, some 50 varieties being locally distinguished; the best land supports three crops annually. Next to rice, cocoa-nut engages the attention of the cultivators. Wherever a sufficiently light soil prevails, this tree is grown; and its products—coir, oil, coprah, and the nuts—form the chief exports of the State. Other crops are,—besides the usual cereals, pulses, and vegetables,—cotton, coffee, indigo, betel leaf and areca nuts, hemp, flax, sugar-cane, ginger, and pepper. This list illustrates the very diversified and fertile nature of the soil. Irrigation obtains only on a small scale, the natural rainfall usually sufficing for the crops. Manure, where necessary, consists chiefly of vegetable refuse, leaves, bark, etc., and the ashes of burnt wood. Of the total area of the State (871,359 acres), nearly one-third, or 288,125 acres, is under cultivation, divided among 66,250 separate registered proprietors; the assessment ranging from 6s. an acre downwards. The yield of an acre of superior rice land averages in value £7, 3s.; that of inferior land, £4. The majority of cultivators do not hold more than 5 acres, from which they obtain the equivalent of about 16s. a month. Most of them cultivate their own land, and tenants-at-will are rare. Rent was, till the present century, paid in kind; but, after several tentative standards, it has now been roughly commuted at about one-fourth of the value of the produce. Beyond this, no regular conversion of rents into cash has been introduced, nor do any of the revenue regulations of British Districts obtain here. The proprietary right in the soil rests either in the Government or private persons. In the former case, the tenants occupy for the most part on, nominally

nple lease, held direct from Government, but about one-fifth of the hole is in reality mortgaged to the tenants. Only two kinds of land are scally recognised—'rice land' and 'garden land,' the former being ssessed by the acreage under crops, and the latter by the number of rees upon it. Cocoa-nut palms, jack-fruit trees, and palmyras pay the ighest rates, which range from 1s. 10d. per tree down to 2d. Where no trees exist, the crop is assessed at about 1s. 4d. per acre. Various imposts supplement the *kanom* or land tax proper,—the chief being *ketut-thengu*, levied upon every 100 trees, after each has been taxed individually; *nekudi*, a royalty collected by the State on the rents of private lands; and *mapura*, taken from all holdings above a certain size. Wages have doubled in every branch of labour during the last 20 years, and now average for a carpenter or bricklayer 7d. per diem, for a smith 10d., and for a day-labourer 5d. Prices of food have increased in even greater proportion; rice, which in 1851 was at 3s. per *maund* (or 4s. 1d. per cwt.), cost in 1871, 6s. 6d. (or 8s. 10d. per cwt.). The price of all other grains has risen proportionately. This rise, however, does not much affect the poorest class of day-labourers, for they receive the bulk of their wages in kind, at the old rates of about 4 lbs. of grain per diem for an adult male, 3 lbs. for a woman, and 2 lbs. for a child, the rate of commutation being generally fixed at 5d., 3d., and 2d. per diem for each. Among the urban population an increasing prosperity is, it is said, becoming yearly marked by the improved class of dwellings erected, and the more general distribution of luxuries. The monthly expenses for a household of the average shopkeeper class would be £4, those of an average peasant, £1, 10s.

Commerce and Manufactures.—In spite of its favourable configuration for commerce, and its great natural resources, Cochin possesses no important trade by sea or land. Except in the coffee cultivation on the Nelliámpatti range, European capital has not yet been attracted to the State. In the Cochin and Kanayanúr *táluks*, ornamental work in metals, and carving in wood and ivory, are carried to a point of great excellence; and the hardware and arms here manufactured command a sale beyond the limits of the State. The timber produced in the forests, and the salt manufactured along the coast, are Government monopolies, and yield large revenues. The old tobacco monopoly was abolished in 1862, as hereafter explained. Among local products, the cocoa-nut palm yields in its nut and fibre an article of export; but the others—areca-nut, ginger, oil-seeds, pepper, etc.—are only locally interchanged. The Madras Railway touches the State at Shoranúr (where there is a station); and the traffic returns for the first half of 1876 showed a total of 11,052 passengers, and 179 tons of goods. The principal exports, besides rice and the products of the cocoa-nut already mentioned, are pepper, cardamoms, and timber.

Means of Communication.—In consequence of the great extent and facility of water-carriage, and of the impediments presented by torrents, backwaters, and inlets of the sea, the construction of roads has, until recently, been little regarded; but there are now 133 miles of good road in the State. The longest and most important line runs nearly parallel to the sea-shore, and on an average about a mile from it. This forms the principal military and official route between Travancore and Malabar. Its continuity, however, is frequently broken by the water-channels which cross it. In the less swampy parts about Trichúr, there are some excellent portions of road, for making which the prevailing formation of laterite is well suited. The Cochin Government have always readily assumed their share in works common to the State and to British territory, such as the protective works at Cruz Milagre (where an opening of the breakwater into the sea, threatened by diminishing the scour over the Cochin bar to impair the value of the harbour); and the improvement of the West Coast Canal for a length of 30 miles where it forms the boundary of the State. Again, when a cart-road was projected to connect Ponáni with the southern end of the Shoranúr bridge, and thus with the railway without the necessity of fording the river, the Cochin Government readily undertook the cost of the length lying within the State. There is now water communication (canals and backwater) for 45 miles between Cochin and Trichúr, and smaller canals branch from this line along its length. Throughout this water system considerable traffic is carried on for nine months of the year, for the remaining three (the hot months) the communication is often interrupted.

Religious and Other Institutions.—Public libraries, aided by State grants, have been established at Ernakollam and Trichúr; and the numerous missions represented in Cochin support printing presses, private schools and societies for the advancement of knowledge. The Catholic mission has a large number of educational institutions. The *Official Gazette of Cochin* is the only periodical publication. Charitable endowments, providing for the maintenance of Bráhman travellers, are attached to all the pagodas; and the State also grants aid to many establishments, for the support of the local Bráhman population. The total expenditure on religious and charitable endowments amounts to £11,732 per annum. Religious gatherings are held annually at all the chief pagodas; the attendance at the most important—that held at Kranganúr, and lasting for ten days—averages 12,000 per diem. At all these gatherings a large interchange of local produce is effected.

Natural Calamities.—The State of Cochin is not subject to famine, the ample means of communication which it possesses placing it beyond the likelihood of such a visitation. Nor are destructive floods or droughts known. A local inundation or deficiency of rainfall may at

times have caused temporary loss, but there is no case on record of an entire harvest having been destroyed.

Administration.—The State is divided for administrative purposes into 7 *táluks* or Subdivisions—Cochin, Kanayanúr, Magantapuram, Trichúr, Tallapalli, Chittúr, and Kranganúr; each supervised by a *tahsíldár*, the local head of the police, revenue, and magisterial administration, assisted by a subordinate native staff. In matters of revenue, the *tahsíldárs* are under the direct control of the *Diwán*, or chief magistrate of the State, and responsible adviser of the Rájá; while in matters of police or criminal justice, they are subject to the *Diwán-peshkár*, the chief assistant of the *Diwán*. Civil law is locally administered by seven *munsifs* (sub-magistrates with restricted powers), and by two *zilá* courts. The Court of Appeal, the highest tribunal of the State, has unlimited powers, both civil and criminal, subject only in sentences of death and imprisonment for life to the confirmation of the Rájá. The police force numbers 217 men, and costs annually £1470. During 1870-71, they made 3379 arrests, obtaining only 293 convictions. There is no village watch such as obtains in the neighbouring British Districts. The number of prisoners in jail during 1870-71 averaged 217; average cost per head, £6, 13s. The administrative headquarters of Cochin are at Ernakollam; but the Rájá resides at Tripúntora, 5 miles distant. The Penal Code of British India has been partially introduced into the State, and also a Registration Act modelled upon our Act VIII. of 1871. The total revenue for 1870-71 stood at £123,642; the total expenditure, at £106,933. In 1809-10, the revenue was only £58,716; and the expenditure, £50,370. The chief items of income (1870-71) were—land revenue, £59,657; customs, £11,619; salt, £18,353; and excise on spirits and drugs, £4270: principal items of expenditure—subsidy to British Government, £20,000; the Rájá's establishment, £18,516; administration (judicial, revenue, and police), £23,348; religious and charitable endowments, £11,732; public works, £15,769. In 1874-75, the revenue of the State was £125,182, and the expenditure, £117,559. In 1862, the tobacco monopoly was abolished, a fixed duty being levied on importation, the Madras Government guaranteeing the State a minimum customs revenue from this head of £1050 per annum. Education costs the State £1927 annually, the chief institution being the High School at Ernakollam, with an average daily attendance of 213 pupils. Five Anglo-vernacular, one Hebrew-Sanskrit, and seven Malayálam schools receive grants in aid from Government, as also do numerous primary schools for boys. Female education has not as yet engaged State attention. Of the total population of 601,114, the Census disclosed 26,621 as being able to read and write; of these, 1133 were women. The postal department resembles that of British India, and carried

during 1870-71 about 17,300 letters, 950 newspapers, and 17 books, exclusive of all covers on public service. There are no municipalities. In regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects, the Rájá, with the approval of the Madras Government, appoints two or three gentlemen—being European British subjects and Christians—to exercise the same jurisdiction as may be exercised in British territory by European British subjects who are magistrates of the first class and justices of the peace. From the sentences of these magistrates there is an appeal to the Rájá's chief court; and in both original and appeal cases it is open to the British Resident to advise the Cochin Government to mitigate or remit the sentence. The gentlemen, selected as above by the Rájá, are further appointed by the Governor-General in Council to be Justices of the Peace, with a view to their remitting serious cases either to the Resident, who under the authority of the Government of India has the powers *ad hoc* of a session judge, or to the High Court of Madras, in accordance with the rules prescribed by sec. 75 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. The Rájás of Cochin are of pure Kshattriya caste, and claim to be descended from the last of the potentates who held supreme authority over the whole extent of territory stretching from Gokuru in North Kanara to Cape Comorin. The present Rájá, Ráma Varma, was born in 1835, and succeeded to the throne in 1864. He was created Knight Commander of the Star of India in 1871, and is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. The military force consists of 347 men and 2 guns.

Medical Aspects.—The climate, though very damp, is not found particularly unhealthy. The average annual rainfall is 107·66 inches, of which 82·10 inches fall during the monsoon, which lasts through the months of May, June, July, and August. The mean annual temperature is 79·7° F., and is very uniform throughout the year, only varying from a monthly average of 77·7° F. in January to 83·4° F. in April, which is the dry season. Even during the latter, though called dry, the air is moist, and frequent showers of rain reduce the temperature, so that a continued drought is unknown. Among endemic diseases, elephantiasis, leprosy, and skin diseases are specially frequent, and malarious fevers prevail all the year round. The elephantiasis is attributed to the impure water used along the coast, where it is most prevalent. Small-pox was annually epidemic from 1865 to 1868; and in 1873, an outbreak of special virulence occurred, 30 per cent. of the cases proving fatal. Cholera appeared in 1865, and again in 1875-1876, causing, however, no great loss of life. Native practice is chiefly guided by two Sanskrit works, the *Ashtanghirtayom* and the *Chintarmai*, the mode of treatment being remarkable only for the extensive use of medicated oils.

Cochin.—One of the seven Subdivisions of the Native State of

Cochin, Madras. Chief towns—COCHIN (1875) (pop. 13,775), Kambalangi (6369), and Charái (5051); other large villages are—Narakal (4115), Pallúrthi (4055), Málankuzi (3087), Edavanakad (3326), Edakuchi (2186), Andickadava (2032), Challanam (2693), Ochanthurti (2544), Azhikal (2287), Elangunapoya (2309), Nairambolam (2835), and Wadakanpura (2035). The gold and silver work and the wood and ivory carving of this Subdivision have more than a local reputation.

Cochin.—Native town in the Cochin (Feudatory) Subdivision of Cochin State, Madras. It consists of 4 conjoined villages, containing 2626 houses, with (1875) 13,775 inhabitants; situated in lat. 9° 58′ 7″ N., and long. 76° 17′ E., on the Travancore estuary half a mile south of the British town of Cochin, in the midst of the populous tract lying between the backwater and the sea. It is connected by canals with Trichúr. Cochin was formerly the capital of the State; and near it tradition places the gold reefs said to have been once worked, but certainly not auriferous now. The station of a (native) sub-judge. The Mattancheri and Jews' quarters of the British town of Cochin (*vide infra*) lie within the limits of the Native State.

Cochin.—*Táluk* of Malabar District, Madras. Area, 1392 acres, containing 3804 houses; pop. (1871), 19,826, of whom 12,100 are Christians, 5293 Hindus, 2412 Muhammadans, and 21 'others.' Situated within the limits of the Native State of Cochin, but subject to the British District of Malabar. Chief towns—COCHIN (*infra*), ANJENGO, and TANGACHERI.

Cochin (*Kochi* or *Kochi-bandar*, 'small port').—British municipality in the Cochin *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 9° 58′ 7″ N., long. 76° 17′ E.; houses, 2706; population in 1871, 13,588; area of the municipality, 800 acres, completely built over; revenue for 1875-76, £1812; incidence of municipal taxation, about 11d. per head. Situated on the south bank of the principal navigable entrance to the great Travancore estuary, along which the town extends for a mile, and then joins Mattancheri and the Jews' settlement. Facing Cochin to the north lies the island of Vypin, colonized by Eurasian Roman Catholics. As the headquarters of a subordinate revenue and judicial establishment, it contains the usual courts, jail, and public offices; also a custom house, Master Attendants' office, post and telegraph offices, dispensary, travellers' bungalow, and numerous schools, supported either by the various missions here established or by the municipality. The many quaint old Dutch buildings give a picturesque appearance to the town. The exports of Cochin in 1875-76 were valued at £739,162, one-seventh dutiable; and the imports at £574,171, of which about 4 per cent. paid duty. The port dues collected during the year amounted to £2625.

History.—Cochin was one of the first spots in India visited by

Europeans. Tradition, indeed, asserts that St. Thomas the apostle extended his labours to this region in 52 A.D., leaving behind him the colony of Christians now called Nazeráni Moplás. It is further said that, in the first year of the Christian era, the Jews settled on the site of their present colony. Afterwards they established their head-quarters at Kranganúr, where they remained until driven away in the 16th century by the Portuguese. From copper plates still extant, it is put beyond doubt that the Jewish and Syrian churches were firmly established in Cochin by the 8th century. The modern history of the port is full of interest. In 1500, the Portuguese adventurer, Cabral, after having cannonaded Calicut, landed at this place and met with a friendly reception from the Rájá, who is described as a reluctant vassal of the Zamorin. Cabral returned to Portugal with a cargo of pepper, and was followed by Inan de Nova Castelho. In 1502, Vasco da Gama, on his second voyage, came to Cochin and established a factory. In 1503, Albuquerque, the Portuguese admiral, arrived just in time to succour the Cochin Rájá, who was besieged by the Zamorin in the island of Vypin. He built the Cochin fort called 'Mannel Kolati,' the first European fort in India, just five years after Da Gama had arrived on the Malabar coast. The fort was enlarged in 1525 by Menezes, the second Viceroy. Albuquerque returned to Portugal, leaving Cochin guarded by only a few hundred men under Duarte Pacheco, when the Zamorin with a large host invaded the Cochin country by land and sea. Pacheco with his brave band of 400 men firmly resisted all the attacks of the Zamorin, and at last forced him to retreat to Calicut. In 1505, Francisco Almeyda, the first Portuguese Viceroy of India, came to Cochin with a large fleet, and was in 1510 succeeded by Albuquerque. On Christmas day, 1524, Da Gama died here, and was buried in the cathedral church of Santa Cruz. His body was afterwards (1538) removed to Portugal. In 1530, St. Francis Xavier, the apostle of the Indies, preached in these parts and made many converts. In 1557, the church of Santa Cruz was consecrated as the cathedral of a bishop. In 1577, the Society of Jesus published at Cochin the first book printed in India. In 1585, Cochin appears to have been visited by the English traveller Ralph Fitch, who, with a band of adventurers, came by the way of Aleppo, Bagdad, and the Persian Gulf to India. In 1616, the English, under Keeling, assisted the Zamorin in attacking Cochin, on the understanding that an English factory was to be established there. These relations were, however, broken off, and the factory was built some years after with the consent of the Portuguese. In 1663, the town and fort were captured from the Portuguese by the Dutch, and the English retired to Ponáni. The Dutch greatly improved the place and its trade, building substantial houses after the European fashion, and erecting quays, etc. They also converted the cathedral

into a warehouse, and the other Roman Catholic churches were used as Protestant places of worship. In 1778, Adrien Van Moens completely altered the fort, providing it with new ditches, and building seven strong bastions. On the conquest of Holland by the French, orders were received from the English Court of Directors in 1795 to take possession of all the Dutch colonies. As the Dutch governor Vanspall demurred to surrendering Cochin peacefully, it was besieged and captured by Major Petrie (20th October 1795). In 1806, the English blew up the cathedral, destroying at the same time some of the quays, the best houses in the place, and the fort. In 1814, Cochin was formally ceded to the English by treaty.

The Roman Catholic Church of St. Francis, which escaped the general destruction above referred to, is a plain massive building, with a nave 142 feet long by 51 broad. Its exact age is unknown; but from inscriptions on the floor, it certainly existed before 1546, and is therefore the oldest European church in India, except perhaps the Calicut church. It contains some curious old epitaphs. The façade of the church was surmounted by an ornamented bronze cross and a weathercock, 6 feet high, which could be distinctly perceived some 10 miles off at sea; but in 1865 these were pulled down. Nearly all traces of the old fort have now disappeared. The building occupied as court-house and *táluk* 'cutcherry' was formerly the Roman Catholic convent. Among the other principal buildings may be mentioned the jail, marine office, travellers' bungalow, churches, and schools. The custom house is situated on the boundary limits of British and Native Cochin. The chief native quarters are—Culvetly Bázár, thickly populated by Moplás, which narrowly escaped destruction by fire on New Year's day 1876; and Amruwadi, inhabited by Chetties and goldsmiths. The lighthouse is situated on the ruins of the ramparts, and adjoining it are the bungalows of European residents facing the sea. Of late years, the sea has threatened to encroach on the place; but several stone groins have been thrown out at right angles to the river bank, and the foreshore has been reclaimed.

Cocos, The.—Two islands in the Bay of Bengal, situated in lat. 14° 10′ N., long. 93° 10′ E.; 45 miles north of the Great Andaman, and a short distance south of Table Island, on which there is a lighthouse. The larger and more northerly of the two, called the Great Coco, is a low oblong-shaped island, between 6 and 7 miles in length and 2 miles broad; area, about 14 square miles. The smaller island, or Little Coco, is $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and about a mile broad; and lies between the Great Andaman and Great Coco. Both islands are to a great extent protected by the Andamans from the heavy south-west swell of the Bay of Bengal; but more or less boisterous weather prevails in October and May, when the north-west and south-west monsoons

respectively set in. The Great Coco is surrounded by a strip of white coral beach, on which grows an almost continuous fence of cocoa-nut trees. Viewed from a distance, the island appears to be entirely covered with these palms (to which it doubtless owes its name); but in reality they form only a narrow belt, the interior being covered with forest trees. One or two parallel ridges, running north and south through the centre of the island, rise to a height not exceeding 50 feet. The island appears (from a careful examination made in 1874) to be destitute of drinking water; although it has been said that a good tank exists somewhere. A few wild pigs are found, and there are many birds. The meteorological aspects of the islands do not differ from those of the ANDAMANS. It is on record that a party of 3 Europeans, 1 East Indian, and 8 Burmese tried to effect a settlement on the Great Coco in 1849; but the project had to be abandoned, 7 of the party having succumbed to fever shortly after they landed. In 1878, the Governor-General invited tenders for a fifty years' lease of the Great Coco.

Coimbatore (*Koyambatúr*).—A British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 10° 14' and 12° 19' N. lat., and 76° 35' and 78° 14' E. long.; area, 7432 square miles; population in 1871, 1,763,274. Bounded on the north by the State of Mysore; on the east by Salem and Trichinopoli Districts; on the west by the Nílgiris, Malabar, and the State of Cochin; and on the south by Madura and the State of Travancore.

Physical Aspects.—The northern portion of the District consists of an elevated tableland, divided from the Mysore plateau (of which it really forms a continuation) by the BALIRANGAM and other hill ranges. It has a northerly slope, and presents throughout an undulating surface, with an average elevation of 2500 feet above the rest of the District. The Balirangam Hills form a double range, with ridges 5000 feet in height, enclosing a valley 4000 feet above the sea, filled with heavy forest and high grass, a favourite resort of wild elephants. Two passes, the Hassanúr and Burghúr *gháts*, lead thence into the 'low country.' This is a plain, slightly undulating, with an easterly slope from the town of Coimbatore (1350 feet above the sea) to Karúr (only 500 feet). All the rivers, therefore, flow eastward to join the Káveri (Cauvery), except in the Polláchi *táluk*, which is situated on the western slope of the watershed. On the western confines of the District lie the Nílgiri Hills, the most conspicuous point being Lambton's Peak, a narrow ridge 5000 feet in height; while on the southern frontier lie the ANAMALAIS. Along the northern boundary flows the KAVERI (CAUVERY), the chief river of Coimbatore, which receives in this District the waters of the BHAVANI, NOYIL, and AMRAVATI. Being confined within rocky banks, and having a fall of 1000 feet in 120 miles, the Káveri is very rapid. An area of 3000

square miles is covered with forests, which afford a large supply of valuable timber—teak, rosewood, sandalwood, etc. Waste pasture lands constitute a large portion of the Collegal *táluk;* and hither immense herds of cattle are yearly driven from the neighbouring District of Salem to graze. The Lambadis and Brinjáras here breed their pack-bullocks. The chief mineral products of the District are iron and limestone; the latter, found everywhere in the nodular form of *kankar*, exists near the town of Coimbatore in a crystalline form, which is quarried for building purposes. In a District so abundantly supplied with forest, waste land, and hills, it is natural that the fauna should be very numerous. Nearly all the larger animals of India are found here —elephant, bison, bear, tiger, panther, ibex, antelope, deer of several species, hyæna, boar, wolf, etc.; as also the representative birds of every order. In the rivers, the *máhsír* fish is common, running to a great size. Reptiles abound, and about 100 deaths from snake-bite are reported annually. The yearly expenditure in rewards for the destruction of dangerous animals averages £200.

History.—The District of Coimbatore formed part of the kingdom of CHERA, in the great Drávida division of the Peninsula. Its ancient name appears to have been Konga or Kangiyam, which still survives in the town of this name in the Dárapuram *táluk*. The early kingdom of Chera corresponded roughly with the present Districts of Coimbatore and 'Salem below-*ghâts*,' and had for its capital a city near the site of the present Karúr. About the 9th century, the Chera country was conquered by the Chola dynasty; and two centuries later, both together were merged, with the Pandya dominions, into one kingdom. The eastern portion of Coimbatore passed nominally into the hands of the Madura Náiks in the 16th century; and in the 17th commenced the series of Mysore incursions which terminated in the 18th century in the incorporation of the District with Mysore. In 1653, the first invaders, descending by the Gazalhatti Pass, ravaged the rich plains of Sattiamangalam, and penetrated across the District into Madura. Thence they were driven back by the generals of Tirumála Náik through the passes into Mysore. Fourteen years later, they returned, capturing Erode and Dárapuram, and virtually subduing the District. During the wars of Haidar Alí and his son Tipú Sultán, Coimbatore divided with the Báramahál and Trichinopoli the distinction of being the scene of the hardest fighting; and when Haidar rose in the service of the Mysore Rájá, and exacted concessions of land for himself, Coimbatore was the first tract assigned to him. He lost it by the temporary reverses of 1760-61, but immediately employed his recovered strength to regain possession. In 1768, the British troops occupied the District; but Haidar soon rallied, recaptured it, and carried into captivity all the weak garrisons that had been left scattered over

the country. In 1783, when Tipú was besieging Mangalore, a diversion was made by a British contingent into Coimbatore; and Karúr, Aravakurichi, and Dárapuram were taken in succession. The fort of Coimbatore next fell; but the treaty of Mangalore, signed immediately afterwards, restored the District to Mysore. During the second war with Tipú, in 1790, a British force again advanced upon the District; and though it was overrun, Tipú, descending in strength, soon reoccupied all the forts. A severe battle fought near Dárapuram left him, though not victorious, in virtual possession. In the following year, while Lord Cornwallis was invading Mysore, Tipú laid siege to the town of Coimbatore; and though it was gallantly defended for five months (by Lieutenants Chalmers and Nash), the garrison were at length obliged to capitulate, and were carried prisoners to Seringapatam. The treaty of 1792, signed soon afterwards, ceded Coimbatore and the greater portion of the District to the English; and in 1799, on the capture of Seringapatam and death of Tipú, the whole passed under the direct administration of the Company. The southern part of the District was then added to the Dindigal Collectorate, and the remainder, with part of Salem District, erected into a separate charge. A rough survey was carried out; and on the lines then laid down, the administration of the District has ever since peaceably progressed.

Population.—The Census of 1871 disclosed a total population of 1,763,274 persons, inhabiting 7432 square miles and 361,109 houses (4·8 persons per house and 237 per square mile), 874,975 males and 888,299 females. Hindus 1,715,081, or 97 per cent. of the whole; Muhammadans, 36,026; Christians, 12,067; Jains, Buddhists, and 'others,' 100. Classified according to forms of worship, 76·9 per cent. of the Hindus were Sivaites, 22·8 per cent. Vaishnavs, and 0·3 per cent. Lingáyats. Of the Muhammadans, 94 per cent. were Sunnis, and (except 140, who returned themselves as Wahábís) the rest were Shiás; 93 per cent. of the Christians were Roman Catholics. The Jesuit mission here has lately been erected into a separate Vicariate Apostolic, with jurisdiction over the Nílgiris and parts of Malabar and Cochin. The London, Leipzig, Lutheran, and Evangelical missions have all settlements here. Classified according to caste, 40·8 per cent. of the Hindus were cultivators (Vallálars), 13·7 per cent. Pariahs, 8 per cent. day-labourers (Vannians), and 5·3 per cent. weavers (Kaikalárs). The toddy-drawers (Shánán), traders (Chetties), shepherds (Idaiyars), artisans (Kammálan), Bráhmans, washermen (Vannán), potters (Kusavan), fishermen (Sembadavan), barbers (Ambattan), warriors (Kshattriyas), and writers (Kanakan) followed in the above order. The hill and jungle tribes are the Malasers, Irulers, Palyars, Kaders, and Madavers, found chiefly on the Anamalais, subsisting precariously on wild fruits and roots, by the chase, or the sale of jungle produce. There are

no pastoral tribes. The Muhammadans were divided, according to sect, into 50 per cent. Labhays, 25 per cent. Shaikhs, 9 per cent. Patháns, 4 per cent. Sayyids. The Moplás, Arabs, and Mughals number together only 373, or about 1 per cent. Classified according to occupation, 29·2 per cent. of the adult male population were agriculturists, 15·8 day-labourers, 8·3 engaged in industries, 2·9 in trade, 3 per cent. in domestic service, and 1·8 professional, leaving 39·1 as unclassified. Of the total population, 3·6 per cent. were returned as able to read and write. The language of the northern portion of the District is Kanarese, that of the remainder Tamil; but in many villages a corrupt Telugu prevails, bearing witness to the northern origin of the inhabitants. The chief towns are—COIMBATORE (pop. 35,310), ANAMALAI (22,293), ARAVAKURICHI (10,764), ERODE (10,201), KARUR (9378). Six others have over 7000, 13 over 6000, 7 over 5000, while 203 have more than 2000 inhabitants, making the total urban population about 700,000, or 42 per cent. The remainder are chiefly agriculturists of the Vallálar caste, and day-labourers—all poor, living in mud-walled huts, and subsisting on *cholam*, *rágí*, and *kambu*, the staple food grains of the District. Rice is eaten only by the well-to-do. The expenses of an ordinary shopkeeper, with a household of five persons, have been estimated at about £3 per month, and of a cultivator's family at about one-half.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District (4,082,560 acres), about one-half, or 2,057,377 acres, is under cultivation; and of the remainder, 1,458,153 are cultivable, though not under the plough. The staple crops of the District, *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare) and *kambu* (Holcus spicata), occupy between them 57·5 per cent. of the cultivated area; *rágí* (Eleusine coracana), 8·75 per cent.; gram (Dolichos biflorus), 6·60; and rice, 3·37 per cent. Rice requires heavy irrigation, and its cultivation is not increasing. Other crops are *dál* (Cajanus Indicus), *elandú* (Phaseolus mungo), cotton, hemp, tobacco, and sugar-cane. The plantain, cocoa-nut, areca-nut, and betel-leaf are also extensively cultivated. There are two seasons for sowing, May and October, and two harvests, in September and February. Rice land pays from 15s. to £2, 12s. in land revenue per acre, and produces a crop ranging in value, according to the quality of the soil, from £2, 8s. to £5, 6s. Most land also yields a second crop, valued at about half the first. The majority of the holdings are very small; the number of registered proprietors or coparceners being 353,623, and the average of their annual revenue liabilities about 16s. A holding paying £50 a year to Government is considered an exceptionally large one, and one paying £10 a comfortable estate. The holder of an estate paying less than £2 would be considered poor. With a single pair of oxen, 5 acres can be cultivated; the necessary implements and oxen would cost about £5; and if the plot were garden

land, the cultivator would be about as well off as a retail shopkeeper, making 16s. a month. Most of the cultivators have occupancy rights; but many villages are held *zamíndárí*, as one estate, the proprietor paying a fixed yearly revenue (*peshkash*) to Government, and recouping himself from his tenants. Other villages and plots, again, are held as *jágírs*, *shrotriem*, or *inám*, rent free, and on specially advantageous terms, in reward for services rendered, or for the support of religious and charitable endowments. Under the Mysore rule, the District was farmed by a few wealthy individuals, who made themselves responsible for the revenue; but in 1800, when the Company assumed the administration, the present system of direct settlement with the cultivators was introduced. The assessment then levied still obtains, and may be estimated at one-half of the net produce on irrigated, and one-third on unirrigated land. Waste lands, overgrown with cactus, the scourge of part of the District, are leased rent free, for terms not exceeding ten years, to any who will rid them of the pest, and bring them under cultivation. The principle of rotation of crops appears to be thoroughly understood, and the advantages of manure are also appreciated. Agricultural day-labourers or coolies earn 4½d. per diem; women, 3d.; and children, 1½d. Blacksmiths, bricklayers, and carpenters receive from 1s. to 1s. 9d. per diem. Since 1850, the rates of wages for skilled labour have risen from 25 to 80 per cent., and prices of food have doubled. Rice, which in 1850 was selling at 3s. per *maund* (88 lbs.), now sells at 8s.; *cholam*, formerly 1s. 4d. per *maund*, now costs 4s.; wheat, once 3s. per *maund*, now sells at 7s. 8d.; salt has risen from 4s. 4d. to 6s. 10d. per *maund*, and country liquor from 1½d. to 3d. and 8d. per gallon.

Natural Calamities.—Periods of drought and consequently high prices have recurred at regular intervals, in 1837-38, 1847-48, 1857-58, 1868-69, 1877-78; but in none of these years did the scarcity ever amount to famine. In 1876, owing to the failure of crops in Mysore and the ceded Districts, an immense exportation of grain from Coimbatore took place; the result being such a rapid rise in the rates, that in two months the price of *cholam* had doubled, and *ragí*, selling in October at 25 lbs. for 1s., cost in December three times that amount. Relief works had to be opened, which in a month gave employment to 28,000 persons. A steady importation of sea-borne grain now set in, and prices soon regained their normal rates. Against famine the District has the best safeguard—a railway traversing it, and good roads communicating with the Districts adjoining on all sides.

Commerce and Trade.—Weaving, the chief industry of the District, supports 18,533 male adults, and, though of late years affected by the low price of British textures, constitutes a lucrative employment. The export trade is small, consisting chiefly in the exchange of cotton of inferior quality, tobacco, and grain, for salt. Palladam is the

centre of the cotton trade, the fibre being there pressed, and despatched to the railway station of Tirupur for transmission to the ports of Madras and Beypur. Weekly markets held at the towns and larger villages—about 250 in all—provide amply for local interchange of produce. Accumulations of money from the profits of agriculture are to a large extent employed in well-building and the improvement of land; the number of wells is 57,000, representing a value of about one million sterling. The rate of interest varies from 6 to 12 per cent. per annum, though 24 to 30 per cent. is sometimes charged; 9 per cent. is considered a good return for money invested in land. Three railways—the Madras South-West, the South Indian, and the Nílgiri branch—pass through the District, having 12 stations within its limits, and traversing 137 miles of country. During 1875, they carried to and from the stations of the District 1,015,237 passengers and 1,134,902 tons of goods, realizing a revenue of £192,284. The principal roads are the Madras Trunk Road and those leading to Trichinopoli, Madura, and the Burghúr and Hassanúr Passes, aggregating a total length of 385 miles, and costing £4126 per annum. *Khedas* for the capture of wild elephants have been established in the north of the District. In 1873, an Act was passed forbidding the destruction of these animals; and between that year and 1876, 55 elephants have been captured alive.

Administration. — For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 10 *táluks*—Coimbatore, Polláchi, Palladam, Karúr, Erode, Udamalpétai, Dárapuram, Satyamangalam, Collegal, and Bhaváni—each of which is supervised by a native staff, revenue and judicial. The Sub-Collector, Head Assistant, and Deputy Collector (Europeans) have superior jurisdiction each over three *táluks;* the Collector-Magistrate having himself special charge of the headquarters *táluk.* The Nílgiri Hills formed, until 1868, a Subdivision of Coimbatore. The total revenue for 1870-71 was £324,508, and the total expenditure on civil administration, £58,082. The principal items of income were—land revenue, £267,088; excise, £28,871; stamps, £14,212; forests, £4623; and assessed taxes, £7124. The chief items of expenditure were—revenue collection, £34,822; administration of justice, £9958. The judicial apparatus of the District consists of 15 civil courts, and 25 magisterial courts, exclusive of village magistrates. The police force aggregates a strength of 983 of all ranks, being in the proportion of 1 constable to every 7 square miles and to every 1792 of the population, maintained at an annual cost of £15,199. During 1871, the police made 16,374 arrests, securing 5885 convictions. The District contains 1 central, 1 District, and 16 subsidiary jails. The central jail accommodates 1018 prisoners, and is recruited not only from all the Districts of the Presidency, but also from Burma and the Straits. The daily

average number of prisoners in it and the District jail was, in 1875, 1166; in all the others together, 91.

Medical Aspects.—Coimbatore is remarkable for the comparatively cool winds which blow across it from the west between May and October. The monsoon brings its rain to Malabar, and up to the range of hills separating that District from this; but there it stops, a cold damp wind without any rain blowing during the monsoon months over the plains of Coimbatore. Thus, after the hot months of March and April, the temperature suddenly falls, and remains low till October. The District is healthy, except at the foot of the hill ranges, where the atmosphere at night is so malarious that the cultivators dare not remain after dusk. The extension of cultivation having greatly curtailed the pasturage, murrain and 'foot-and-mouth' disease have become very prevalent among the cattle. The latter disease has been communicated to the wild herds of bison, and sportsmen find the numbers of these animals rapidly decreasing from this cause.

Coimbatore.—*Táluk* of Coimbatore District, Madras. Area, 624 square miles, of which 56 per cent. (about 230,000 acres) is under cultivation; pop. (1871), 243,995, being 235,848 Hindus, 4758 Muhammadans, and 3389 Christians; number of houses, 48,260; land revenue, £29,606. Chief towns—Coimbatore and Mettapolliem.

Coimbatore (*Koyambatúr*, formerly *Koyampadi* and *Koibmutur*).—Municipal town in Coimbatore District, Madras, and station on the Madras Railway. Situated on the left bank of the Noyil river, in lat. 10° 59′ 41″ N., and long. 76° 59′ 46″ E.; 304 miles by rail from Madras, and 50 from Utákamand (Ootacamund). Houses, 5307, two-thirds of them tiled; pop. (1871), 35,310, including 30,801 Hindus, 2599 Muhammadans, and 189 Christians; municipal revenue in 1875-76, £4519; incidence of taxation per head, about 1s. 3d. As the head-quarters of the District administration, it contains all the chief courts—magisterial, revenue, and judicial—the central jail, District police, post and telegraph offices, dispensary, and school. The town lies 1400 feet above sea level; and, being built with particularly wide streets, and possessing good natural drainage, an abundant water supply, and a cool temperature, it is better suited for the residence of Europeans than most of the towns of the Presidency. The Nílgiri branch of the Madras south-western line connects it with the railway system: the returns for 1875 showed a passenger traffic of 158,969, and a traffic in goods of 22,018 tons, yielding a revenue of £29,407. From its position, commanding the approach to Palghát on the west, and to the Gazalhatti Pass on the north, Coimbatore was formerly of great strategical importance. Originally belonging to the Chera dominions, it fell to the Madura Náiks, by whom it was considered one of their chief strongholds, and afterwards to Mysore. During the wars with Haidar Alí and Tipú Sultán, it changed masters

many times. In 1768, the British took it, and again lost it; and in 1783, it was again taken and retaken. In 1790, the Company's forces a third time occupied it, but Tipú, after a siege of five months, compelled the garrison to surrender. In 1792 provisionally, and in 1799 finally, the town was ceded to the British, and from that time it ceased to be a military station. Three miles distant, at Perúr, stands the temple of Mel-Chidambaram (to be distinguished from the Kil-Chidambaram of North Arcot), celebrated for its sanctity, and further remarkable as one of the three Hindu temples spared from destruction by Tipú Sultán.

Colába.—District, Bombay.—*See* KOLABA.

Coleroon (*Kolladam*).—The northern mouth of the Káveri (Cauvery) river in the Madras Presidency, which leaves the main channel at the upper end of the island of SRIRANGAM, about 10 miles west of Trichinopoli, in lat. 10° 53′ N., and long. 78° 51′ E. After a north-easterly course of about 94 miles, it falls into the Bay of Bengal at Atchavaram, 3½ miles from Porto Novo, in lat. 11° 26′ N., and long. 79° 52′ E. For the greater part of its length the Coleroon forms the boundary between the Districts of Trichinopoli and South Arcot on the left, and Tanjore on the right bank. As compared with the Káveri (Cauvery) proper, its course is more direct and its fall more rapid; and consequently it naturally tends to carry off the larger volume of water. To counteract this tendency and maintain the proper water supply of the Tanjore delta, the great anicut or dam was constructed in 1856 across the channel of the Coleroon by Sir A. Cotton. A description of this work is given in the article on the CAUVERY (KAVERI). In the same year a second dam, known as the lower anicut, was thrown across the Coleroon, 70 miles below Srírangam, in order to regulate the irrigation of South Arcot. This dam consists of a hollow bar of masonry, 8 feet high and as many broad, the interior being filled with sand rammed down. The total length is 1901 feet, and in the rear is an apron of masonry. The lower anicut also feeds the great Viranam tank by the Vadavár channel, and by several canals irrigates Tanjore District. In South Arcot, the main channels from the Coleroon are the 'Khán Sáhib,' the 'Iron Company's,' the 'Rájá Vaikal,' the Budenkugi, and the Karanguli canals. The total outlay on the lower anicut and its dependent works was about £30,000, and the increase of revenue since its construction has averaged over £10,000 per annum in South Arcot alone. The Coleroon is affected by the tide for 5 or 6 miles from its mouth. The boat traffic is considerable.

Colgong (*Kahlgáon*).—Municipal town and headquarters of a police circle (*thánά*) in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated on the right or south bank of the Ganges. Lat. 25° 15′ 55″ N., long. 87° 16′ 51″ E. The second largest town in the District. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 4167; Muhammadans, 1064; Christians, 8; total, 5239,

viz. 2687 males and 2552 females. Municipal committee of 10 members, of whom 9 are non-officials. Municipal income (1876-77), £166; expenditure, £113; rate of taxation, 7¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. Colgong has for long been a place of commercial importance, owing to its being easily accessible both by railway and river. Since 1875, however, a large number of traders have left the town in consequence of the diversion of the main stream of the Ganges, which formerly flowed just under the town, but has now entirely receded. The former channel of the river is at present occupied by a broad bank of loose sand, across which it is very difficult to convey heavy merchandise. The railway station is on the loop line of the East Indian Railway, 245 miles from Calcutta. The only fact of historical interest connected with Colgong is that Mahmúd Sháh, the last independent King of Bengal, died here in 1539 A.D. After his defeat at Behar, he fled to Gaur; and when that place was invested by the Afghán Sher Sháh, he took refuge with the Emperor Humáyun at Chanár. In his absence, Gaur was stormed and sacked, and his two sons were slain by the Afgháns. He had advanced with the Emperor as far as Colgong, to attack Sher Sháh, when the tidings of his sons' death was brought to him, which so affected him that he died of grief in a few days.

Collegal (*Kálligál*).—Chief town in the *táluk* of the same name, Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 12° 10′ N., long. 77° 9′ E.; pop. (1871), 7920; number of houses, 1112.

Colonelganj.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh; 2 miles north of the Sarju river, 20 miles from Gonda town, and 10 from Bahramghát. Lat. 27° 8′ N., and long. 81° 44′ E. The original village, named Sakrora, was a place of no importance, till, in 1780, a force under a British officer was sent by the Nawáb of Oudh to bring to terms the refractory rulers of his trans-Gogra Provinces, and Sakrora became the headquarters of the force for some years. In 1802, a larger force was stationed here, and a *bázár* named Colonelganj, in honour of the commanding officer, came into existence. On the annexation of Oudh, Colonelganj was selected as the military headquarters for the Commissionership of Gonda and Bharáich. The native troops here, as elsewhere, revolted on the outbreak of the Mutiny; and it was with difficulty that the English officers escaped to the protection of the loyal Mahárájá of Balrámpur. On the suppression of the rebellion, Colonelganj was abandoned as a military station. Its central position between Bharáich, Gonda, and Balrámpur, however, marked it out as a natural depôt for the rice and oil-seeds of the western portions of the trans-Gogra *tarái*, and it soon became the seat of a flourishing export trade, which is increasing in importance every year. Import trade insignificant, consisting of a little salt, raw and manufactured

cotton, and copper vessels. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 4730, the prevailing castes being Baniás, Pásis, and Ahírs; Muhammadans, 1168; total, 5898, residing in 1492 houses. A few ordinary Hindu temples, two mosques, and a *sarái* are the principal buildings. Bi-weekly market, police station, Government school, dispensary.

Colonelganj.—River-side mart in Patná District, Bengal, situated west of Gulzárbágh, forming one of the large business quarters of Patná City, and the centre of a large trade in oil-seeds and food grain.

Combaconam (*Kumbhakonam*).—*Táluk* in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Houses, 61,744; pop. (1871), 341,034, viz. 165,589 males and 175,445 females. Classified according to religions, there were—311,560 Hindus (viz. 260,467 Sivaites, 49,195 Vishnuvites, 1898 Lingáyats); 20,033 Muhammadans (including 19,084 Sunnis, 123 Shiás, 16 Wahábis, and 810 'others'); 9408 Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics (including 20 Europeans, 32 Eurasians, 9342 natives); 23 Buddhists and Jains; and 10 of other denominations.

Combaconum (*Kumbhakonam*, 'The water-jar mouth'—Sanskrit).—Municipal town in the *táluk* of the same name, Tanjore District, Madras; situated in the richest tract of the Káveri (Cauvery) delta, in lat. 10° 58′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 24′ 30″ E. Pop. (1871), 43,158, of whom nearly 20 per cent. are Bráhmans; number of houses, 8678. Formerly the capital of the Chola kingdom, it is one of the most ancient and sacred towns in the Presidency, and so celebrated for its learning as to have been called the Oxford of Southern India. In addition to a number of Hindu temples, for the most part in good repair and well-endowed, it contains a Government college, courts, etc. Being much frequented by visitors and pilgrims, a brisk trade is carried on. Municipal revenue, about £4300; incidence of direct taxation, about 9d. per head.

Comercolly.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* KUMARKHALI.

Comillah (*Kumillá*).—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the Gumti river, on the main road from Dacca to Chittagong, in lat. 23° 27′ 55″ N., and long. 91° 13′ 18″ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 5575; Muhammadans, 7300; Christians, 70; 'others,' 3; total, 12,948, viz. males 7999, and females 4949. Constituted a municipality in 1864, the municipal limits covering an area of 2969 acres; income in 1876-77, £1030—expenditure, £1139; rate of taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head of population within municipal limits. During the rains, the water in the river often rises several feet above the level of the town, which is only saved from periodical inundation by an embankment maintained by the Rájá of Hill Tipperah; but as this is narrow and weak in many parts, the town has sometimes been in great danger. The principal roads are metalled within municipal limits, and lined on both sides with handsome trees. The largest of

the many fine tanks in Comillah is the Dharm Ságar, constructed by a Rájá of Tipperah in the first half of the 15th century, which is a mile in circumference. The houses of the European officials, the District school, and charitable dispensary are built on its banks. An Anglican church, recently constructed in the station, was consecrated by the Bishop of Calcutta in September 1875. Besides the ordinary Government courts and buildings, and the houses of the European residents, there are very few brick houses in the place. The Rájá of Tipperah, who owns the land on which the town is built, will not allow his tenants to build any but mat or mud houses, unless they pay him so large a *nazar* (conciliatory present) as to practically amount to a prohibition.

Comorin (*Kumári; Kannia-Kumári*).—Headland in the State of Travancore, Madras; the extreme southern point of India. Lat. 8° 4′ 20″ N., long. 77° 35′ 35″ E. From Cape Comorin the chain of the Western Gháts runs northwards. In the *Periplus*, reference is made to a harbour here; but this has now disappeared, owing to encroachments of the sea, although a well of fresh water in a rock a little way out to sea seems to support the theory of its former existence.

Comorin (*Kumári*, 'a virgin').—Village near the cape of the same name. Lat. 8° 4′ N., long. 77° 36′ E.; houses, 430; pop. (1871), 2247. The bathing festival referred to by the Greek geographers is still continued in honour of Dúrga, the virgin goddess after whom the place is named.

Condavid.—Town in Kistna District, Madras.—*See* KONDAVIR.

Conjevaram (*Kánchívaram; Kánchípuram; Kien-chi-pu-lo* of Hiouen Thsang).—*Táluk* of Chengalpat District, Madras. Houses, 26,552; pop. (1871), 168,036, being 83,818 males and 84,218 females. In no other *táluk* in the District are the women in excess of the men. Classified according to religion, there were in 1871—160,058 Hindus, (including 83,434 Sivaites, 76,177 Vaishnavs, and 444 Lingáyats); 3498 Muhammadans; 4462 Christians, nearly all Roman Catholics; and 18 Buddhists and Jains.

Conjevaram (*Kánchívaram*).—Municipal town in the *táluk* of the same name, Chengalpat District, Madras. Lat. 12° 49′ 45″ N., long. 79° 45′ E.; houses, 6447; pop. (1871), 35,396, almost all Hindus, of whom 11 per cent. are Bráhmans and 17 per cent. weavers of a caste peculiar to this portion of the District. Municipal revenue for 1875-1876, £2230; incidence of taxation, about 8d. per head of rateable population. Situated on the trunk road 46 miles south-west of Madras, and the terminus of a branch line of the South Indian Railway. As the headquarters of the *táluk*, it contains the usual subordinate magisterial and revenue courts, jail, dispensary, school, etc. But Conjevaram is chiefly interesting as being a place of special sanctity. It is one of the seven holy cities of India, and has been called the 'Benares of the South.'

Hiouen Thsang speaks of it as the capital of Dravida. It was then a great Buddhist centre; but about the 8th century began a Jain epoch, and traces of this religion still exist in the neighbourhood. To this succeeded the period of Hindu predominance, and the Vijáyanagar Rájás (who had treated the Jains liberally) endowed the sacred places of their own religion with great magnificence. Two of the temples, the largest in Southern India, were built by Krishna Raya about 1509; and for many smaller pagodas, *choultries* and *agrahárams* (Bráhman resting-houses and alms-houses), the town is indebted to the same family. The lofty *gopuras* (pyramids), the thousand-pillared temple, with its splendid porch and fine jewels, attract the chief attention of visitors (*see* CHIDAMBARAM). The great annual fair held in May is attended, in prosperous years, by as many as 50,000 pilgrims. 'Kánchipur' was an important city of the Chola kingdom, and in the 14th century the capital of Tondamadalam. After the fall of the Vijáyanagar family in 1644, it was subject to the Golconda princes, and afterwards, passing under the Muhammadan rule, became part of the Arcot dominions. In 1751, Clive, returning from Arcot, took the town from the French, but had, in the same year, again to contest its possession with Rájá Sáhib. In 1757, the French, beaten off in an attack upon the pagoda, set fire to the town. In 1758, the British garrison was temporarily withdrawn, on account of the expected advance of the French upon Madras, but was soon sent back with reinforcements; and during the siege of the capital, and the subsequent wars of the Karnatic, this town played an important part as a depôt and cantonment. A few miles distant is the battle-field where General Baillie's column was cut to pieces in 1780 by Haidar Alí.

Contai (*Kánthi*).—Subdivision of Midnapur District, Bengal, lying between 21° 37′ 15″ and 22° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 87° 27′ 15″ and 88° 1′ 30″ E. long. Area, 850 square miles, with 2201 villages or towns and 76,626 houses. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 420,559; Muhammadans, 21,445; Christians, 21; and 'others,' 247; total, 442,272, viz. males 223,580, and females 218,692. Proportion of males in total population, 50·6 per cent.; average density of population, 520 per square mile; average number of houses per square mile, 91; persons per village, 201; persons per house, 5·7. The Subdivision, which was created 1st January 1852, comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Contái, Raghunáthpur, Egra, Khejiri (Kedgeree), Patáspur, and Bhagwánpur. In 1871, it contained one revenue and magisterial court, with a regular police force 192 strong, besides 1552 village watchmen; total cost of Subdivisional administration, £6605, exclusive of the value of land held rent free by some of the village police in lieu of pay.

Contai (*Kánthi*).—Principal place in Subdivision of same name, Midnapur District, Bengal, and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*).

Coompta (*Kumpta*).—Chief town of the Coompta Subdivision of the Kanara District, Bombay; situated on a creek on the east coast of the Indian Ocean, about 113 miles north of Mangalore, 328 south-east of Bombay, and 410 north-west of Madras. Lat. 14° 26′ N., and long. 74° 27′ E. Pop. 10,932 souls. Municipal income, £1071, or 2s. per head. The average annual value of the trade at the port of Coompta during the five years ending with 1873-74, is returned at £481,811 of import, and £868,049 of export. The lighthouse consists of a masonry tower erected on the top of a hill situated on the mainland at the mouth of the creek. Height of lantern above high water is 180 feet. It is a common lantern in a masonry column, showing a single white fixed light, which illuminates an area of 72 square miles, and is visible from the deck of a ship 12 miles distant. The town of Coompta has a sub-judge's court, a post office, and a dispensary, and is the headquarter station of the chief revenue and police officers of the Subdivision. Coompta is the chief commercial town in Kanara District. Its trade consists chiefly of cotton, spices, and grain, the first coming from Dhárwár District, and the rest from the upland country of Kanara. The only manufacture of Coompta is the carving of a few articles of sandalwood, which are exported to Bombay.

Coonoor (*Kúnúr*).—Municipal town in the Nílgiri Hills District, Madras. Situated in lat. 11° 20′ N., and long. 76° 50′ E., 6000 feet above the sea level, at the south-east corner of the Nílgiri plateau, and at the head of the principal pass (the Coonoor Ghát) from the plains; distant 363 miles by rail from Madras, and 12 from Utákamand (Ootacamund). Houses, 957; pop. (1871), about 3000, being 2500 Hindus (chiefly Pariahs), and the remainder Europeans, with their establishments, a fluctuating number. The municipal limits extend over about 3 square miles; the municipal revenue realized in 1875 was £1341; incidence of taxation, about 2s. 7d. per head of population. It is the terminus of the Nílgiri branch of the Madras South-Western Railway; possesses a sub-magistrate's court, etc., hospital, three churches, and many schools, a library and shops and hotels for the convenience of Europeans. In the neighbourhood are several tea and coffee estates. Coonoor is one of the principal sanitaria of the Presidency, and second only to Utákamand (Ootacamund) in natural advantages. The town is built on the sides of the beautiful basin formed by the expansion of the Jackatalla valley, at the mouth of a great gorge, surrounded by wooded hills. It possesses a cool and equable climate, the mean annual temperature in the shade being 62° F. In the warmer months the thermometer fluctuates between 55° and 75° F.; in the colder months, between 38° and 68° F. The average annual rainfall is 76 inches, distributed in normal years over 112 days. The rate of mortality is remarkably low, and no particular ailments can be

said to be characteristic of the place. The town is admirably kept and well drained, possessing 20 miles of excellent roads and beautiful pleasure drives, along the sides of which grow hedges of roses, while the fuchsia, dahlia, and heliotrope attain the proportions of shrubs. The European settlement is on the upper plateau; the native quarter on the lower slopes of the valley.

Coorg (*Kurg; Kodagu*, lit. 'steep mountains').—A territory or Province in Southern India, under the administration of the Supreme Government; situated between 11° 56′ and 12° 50′ N. lat., and between 75° 24′ and 76° 13′ E. long. Total area, according to the most recent estimate of the Survey Department, 1580 square miles, and not 2000 square miles, as assumed in the Census Report and subsequent official documents; population, according to the Census of 1871, 168,312. The chief town and seat of administration is MERKARA, in 75° 46′ N. lat., and 12° 26′ E. long.; pop. (1871), 8146.

Coorg is bounded along its entire western frontier by the mountain chain of the Western Gháts, which separates it from the Madras Districts of Malabar and South Kanara. This range curves somewhat inland, so as to serve also to some extent as the northern and southern boundary. On the north, Coorg is partially separated from the forest highlands of Mysore by the rivers Kumáradhári and Hemavati. On the east, it merges in the general tableland of Mysore, the boundary for some distance being marked by the river Káveri (Cauvery).

History.—Coorg has always been known in history as the home of a brave and independent race of mountaineers, who maintained their freedom against the outnumbering forces of Haidar Alí, and only yielded to the British power after a sharp struggle, on condition that their national characteristics would be respected. At the present day the native tribe of Coorgs, though only numbering 26,389 souls, preserve all the marks of a dominant race. They cultivate their hereditary lands on a feudal tenure, bear arms at their pleasure, and treat with British officials through their head-men on terms of honourable equality. No people in India have given more decisive proofs of their loyalty to the British crown.

As containing the sacred sources of the river Káveri (Cauvery), the mountains of Coorg figure in early Hindu legends, which are duly recorded in the Káveri *Purána*, forming an episode in four chapters of the *Skánda* or *Kártikeyá Purána*. Local tradition supports the theory that the Coorgs are descended from the conquering army of a Kadamba king, who ruled in the north-west of Mysore about the 6th century A.D. The earliest trustworthy evidence that we now possess are certain stone inscriptions found in Southern Coorg, which record grants of land by monarchs of the Chera dynasty dated in the 9th century. But it is not probable that the mountain fastnesses of Coorg were ever permanently

subjugated by the rulers of the lowlands. The Muhammadan chronicler Ferishta, writing at the end of the 16th century, casually mentions that Coorg was governed by its own princes. According to tradition, Coorg was at this period divided into 12 *kombus* or districts, each ruled by an independent chieftain, called a *náyak*. The names of several of the families of these *náyaks* are still held in veneration by the people; but the chiefs themselves all finally succumbed to the wily encroachments of the Háleri *poligárs*, who founded the line of Coorg Rájás expelled by the British in 1834.

The origin of this Háleri dynasty is obscure. It is certain that they were aliens to the native Coorgs, for they belonged to the Lingáyat sect of Hindus, whose influence is great in the neighbouring country of Mysore; whereas the Coorgs retain to the present day their own crude forms of demon and ancestor worship. However this may be, they exercised for many generations absolute authority over the people; and, despite their bloodthirsty tyranny, they were universally accepted as the national leaders. It is commonly supposed that the founder of the dynasty was a younger scion of the family who ruled at Ikkeri in Shimoga District, known as the *poligárs* of Keladi or Bednur. He is said to have first settled at Háleri, whence he rapidly extended his power over the whole of Coorg. The history of the Coorg Rájás is officially chronicled in the *Rájendra-náma*, a work compiled about 1807 in Kanarese by order of Dodda Vira Rájendra, and translated into English by Lieutenant Abercromby in the following year. This interesting native document may be accepted as fairly trustworthy. It comprises a period of 175 years, from 1633 to 1807.

The most brilliant chapter in the history of Coorg is the resistance offered to Haidar Alí and his son Tipú Sultán. When all the rest of Southern India fell almost without a blow before the Muhammadan conqueror, this warlike people never surrendered their independence; but, despite terrible disasters, finally allied themselves on honourable terms with the British to overthrow the common enemy. At one time all seemed lost. Haidar Alí had invaded the country, and carried away the Rájá and all the royal family prisoners into Mysore. Tipú followed in his father's path with more than his father's ferocity. He resolved to remove the entire stubborn population, and actually deported 85,000 souls to Seringapatam. The land he granted out to Musalmán landlords, on whom it was enjoined as an imperative duty to search for and slay the surviving inhabitants. It was reserved for a prince of the blood royal to rescue the Coorgs from this sentence of extermination. Vira Rájendra, the hero of Coorg history, and the Coorg model of a warrior king, escaped from his prison in Mysore, and raised the standard of independence on his native hills. The Muhammadan garrison was

forthwith expelled, and a successful guerilla warfare kept up until the intervention of Lord Cornwallis finally guaranteed Coorg from danger. With the restoration of peace in 1799 by the death of Tipú Sultán, the real troubles of Coorg began. Vira Rájendra himself, and also his successor on the throne, appear to have been cursed with the senseless ferocity which so often accompanies irresponsible power. By their subjects they were reverenced almost as gods, and in their countless acts of cruelty they rivalled the most sanguinary deities of the Hindu Pantheon. Repeated remonstrances from the British Resident at Mysore proved ineffectual; and at last, in 1834, Lord William Bentinck, then Governor-General of India, resolved on armed intervention. A British force of 6000 men entered Coorg in four divisions. Though two of the invading columns were bravely repulsed by the Coorg militia, the rest penetrated to Merkára, and achieved the entire subjugation of the country. The Rájá surrendered himself to the Political Agent, Colonel Fraser, who issued a proclamation dated May 7, 1834, announcing that, in accordance with the unanimous wish of the inhabitants, Coorg was transferred to the government of the Company. The people were assured that their civil and religious usages would be respected, and that the greatest desire would invariably be shown to augment their security, comfort, and happiness.

The pledges given on this occasion (1834) have been faithfully carried out on both sides. Coorg has ever since shown a conspicuous example of a brave and intelligent race, ruled by the British with the minimum of change and interference, and steadily advancing in material prosperity without losing the virtues of their national character. The Rájá retired to Benares, with a pension of Rs. 6000 (£600) a month. In 1852, he was allowed to visit England, where he died in 1862. His daughter, the Princess Victoria Gauramma, was baptized into the Christian faith, with the Queen for her sponsor. She married an English officer, and died in 1864. At the present day, a son of the late Rájá, with several other members of the family, still resides at Benares, in receipt of a small pension from the revenues of Coorg.

Physical Aspects.—The whole area of Coorg is mountainous, clothed with primeval forest or grassy glades, and broken by but few cultivated valleys. The lofty barrier range of the Western Gháts forms the continuous western frontier for a distance of more than 60 miles. The highest peak is Tadiándamol, 5729 feet above the sea. The western slope of this range drops in a succession of precipitous terraces towards the sea; but on the east a confused network of spurs and minor ridges runs out into Coorg, some of which attain considerable elevations. The town of Merkára is situated on a tableland, about 3500 feet above sea level. But even this plateau is broken by hills and steep valleys, leaving but little space for cultivation. The chief rivers of Coorg are the upper

waters of the Káveri (Cauvery) and its tributaries, the Lakshmantirtha and Hemavati, which flow eastward into Mysore. On the west, the Bárapol and a few minor streams break their way through the Gháts, and precipitate themselves on the lowlands of Malabar. None of the rivers are navigable. They flow in narrow valleys, usually through dense jungle; and they are little used for artificial irrigation. The geological formation of the mountains belongs to the metamorphic class of rocks, chiefly granite, syenite, and mica schist. The weathering of these rocks under the influence of rain, wind, and sun, has produced a deep surface soil of great fertility, which is annually renewed by the decomposition of the virgin forest. Stone is quarried for building purposes, but no valuable minerals or metals are known to exist. The natural wealth of Coorg is represented by the boundless forests, which vary in character in different parts of the territory. The mountain forests, known as *male-kádu*, which clothe the Western Gháts are chiefly marked by evergreen trees. Conspicuous among these is the *pún* (Calophyllum angustifolium), which often rises to the height of 100 feet, and supplies excellent spars for ships. The other timber-trees in this tract include ebony (Diospyros ebenaster), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), iron-wood (Mesua ferrea), and white cedar (Cedrela toona); and the whole scene is diversified by clusters of brilliant flowers and fruits, gigantic creepers, and numerous varieties of fern. The forests in the lower hill ranges and passes in the eastern portion of Coorg are known as *kanive-kádu*. This is pre-eminently the region of bamboo, teak, and sandal-wood. The bamboos of Coorg are specially famous. They form forests of their own, rising in clusters to the height of 60, and sometimes even 100 feet. With their fan-like tufts, these clumps of bamboo recall to the imagination the sculptured columns of a Gothic cathedral. The teak (Tectona grandis) and the sandal-wood (Santalum album) are very local in their range. The timber of both is a valuable monopoly of Government. Other timber-trees are the blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), *malti* (Terminalia coriacea), *honi* or *kino* (Pterocarpus marsupium), *dindul* (Conocarpus latifolius), and *heddemara* (Nauclea cordifolia). Many products of commercial value, such as oil, fibre, and resin, are collected in the jungle, which also abounds in wild animals; and every native Coorg is an enthusiastic sportsman. Among large game may be enumerated tigers, leopards, bears, elephants, bison, *sámbhar* deer, jungle sheep, and wild hog. A reward of Rs. 5 (10s.) is now given by Government for the destruction of every tiger, and Rs. 3 (6s.) for every leopard. In the days of the Coorg Rájás, tiger-hunting was a royal sport, and several tiger-cubs were generally kept about the palace. The number both of tigers and leopards is still considerable, but wild elephants have now become comparatively scarce, and their indiscriminate slaughter has been prohibited. They may only be caught alive in pitfalls.

People.—In 1836, shortly after the British occupation, the population of Coorg was returned at 65,437 souls. In 1870, the official estimate was 114,161. It does not appear that these figures were based upon any trustworthy data. The first regular Census, conducted by actual counting, was effected on the night of 14th November 1871. The agency employed was that of Government officials and village servants; and the Superintendent has expressed his opinion that 'the returns may be considered fairly reliable.' The results showed a total of 168,312 persons, dwelling in 22,900 houses and in 495 villages. No survey has ever been made of Coorg, but the area was roughly estimated by the Census officers at 2000 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 84·2; villages per square mile, ·2; houses per square mile, 11·5. The average number of persons per village is 340—of persons per house, 7·3. Classified according to sex, there are 94,454 males and 73,858 females; proportion of males, 56·1 per cent. This undue preponderance of males is explained by the fact, that the enumeration was made at a time when the coffee gardens were crowded with immigrant coolies. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years of age, 28,641 boys and 26,441 girls; total, 55,082, or 33 per cent. of the total population. The ethnical division of the people shows—179 Europeans, 1 American, 1 Australian, and 229 Eurasians; 116,414 natives of Coorg, 26,203 of Madras, and 24,470 of Mysore; 293 Marhattás; 111 from Hyderabad, 190 from Bombay, 155 from Bengal, 10 from Sind, 1 Arab, 5 from Kandahár, and 50 'others.' The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy; but it may be mentioned, as indicating the importance of the coffee industry, that 44,700 persons, or 26 per cent., are returned as labourers, as compared with only 20,989 agriculturists, or 12·5 per cent. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes, and including Coorgs), 154,586, or 91·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 11,304, or 6·7 per cent.; Christians, 2410, or 1·4 per cent.; and 12 'others,' consisting of 10 Pársís and 2 Jains. The Hindus are chiefly subdivided, according to the two great sects, into worshippers of Vishnu, numbering 29,685, and worshippers of Siva, 124,791. The Bráhmans number 3270, chiefly belonging to the Smarta or Sivaite sect; 1890 of these have returned themselves as natives of Coorg, being descendants of families who settled in the Province during the last century. Of those claiming the rank of Kshattriya-hood, the Marhattás number 2376; the Rájputs, 255; the Rájpinde, or connections of the late ruling family, 36; and the Ráchewárs, 133. The Vaisyas, or trading caste, are 297 in number, almost exclusively Komatis. The Sudrás collectively number 55,343, among whom the most numerous caste is the cultivating Wokliga (28,231), including many coolie immigrants from Mysore and Madras. The Lingáyats number 9835, the Jains, 110—both castes

being engaged in trade and agriculture. Out-castes number 34,100, and wild tribes, 14,783.

The Coorgs or Kodagus, who still remain the dominant tribe in the country, are only 26,309 in number, or 15·6 per cent. of the total population. Their origin is unknown; but for the last two centuries they can be recognised as a compact body of mountaineers, resembling a Highland clan rather than a Hindu caste. A subdivision of them, called Amma Coorgs, who number less than 300, are regarded as a superior class, more strict in their mode of life, and perhaps the descendants of an indigenous priesthood. In physique they are not inferior to any natives of India. The men are muscular, broad-chested, and strong-limbed, and not unfrequently 6 feet in height. Their mode of life and pride of race impart to their whole bearing an air of manly independence and dignified self-assertion, well sustained by their picturesque costume. This consists of a long coat (*kupasa*), of white or blue cotton, or dark cloth, open in front and reaching below the knee. Round the waist is wound a red or blue sash of cotton or silk, which holds the never-absent Coorg knife or *daa*, with ivory handle and chains of silver. The head-dress is a red kerchief, or a peculiarly fashioned turban, large and flat at the top, and covering a portion of the back of the neck. For ornaments they wear a necklace of berries, and earrings and bracelets of silver or gold. The women are strikingly handsome and well-shaped. Their holiday costume is a tight-fitting jacket, of white or blue cotton, with long sleeves. The skirt is formed of a long piece of white muslin or blue cotton stuff, tied round the waist and falling in graceful folds to the feet. Contrary to the custom of other Hindu women, these folds are gathered behind. The women do all the domestic work, and also bear a large share of the labours of the farm. When not engaged in labour, the men enjoy a dignified leisure, or range through the forest, gun in hand, in search of game. The height of their ambition is to be entrusted with some Government post. They rarely marry until they have attained the age of sixteen years. The old custom of polyandry is said to be now extinct, though recognised in the marriage ceremony, where the bride typically testifies her submission to the brothers of the bridegroom. Divorce is a recognised institution, sanctioned by the council of village elders, or *takkas*.

The Muhammadans in Coorg are divided between Labbays and Moplás from the Malabar coast, and immigrants from the Deccan. Out of the total of 2410 Christians, the Europeans number 181 and the Eurasians 229, leaving 2000 for the native converts, who are mostly Roman Catholic immigrants from Kanara, of the Konkani caste. According to another principle of division, there are 361 Protestants and 2093 Roman Catholics.

There are only 3 places in Coorg with a population of more than

2000 persons each. MERKARA, or Mahádevapet, the civil and military headquarters of the Province, has 8146 inhabitants; VIRA-RAJENDRA-PET, with the hamlet of Kuklúru, 3413; and Madé, 2716. Fraser-pét, on the eastern frontier, 1000 feet below Merkára, is the residence of the British Superintendent during the rainy season. Merkára and Vira-rájendra-pet have been constituted municipalities, with an aggregate income in 1875-76 of £613, giving an average municipal taxation of 1s. 0¾d. per head. Municipal committees have also been formed in three other villages.

Coorg possesses many remains of archæological interest. Cairns or tumuli are found in great numbers; and since attention was first attracted to them in 1868, many of them have been opened. They conceal kistvaens, very similar to those of Europe, composed of four upright granite slabs about 4 feet high, roofed with a larger slab. Some of these kistvaens are arranged in regular groups, others are surrounded by a circle of smaller stones. Inside is found pottery, containing bones, ashes, iron spear-heads, and beads. No trace is now preserved of the race that erected these memorials. Of a more recent date are the *kolle-kallu*, or sculptured tombstones in honour of warriors slain in battle. The figures show that these were erected by Hindus of the Lingáyat sect. The Coorg race has left its warlike memorials in the *kadangas* or earthworks, which stretch over hill and dale through the length and breadth of the land. Some of these *kadangas* are 40 feet from summit to bottom of ditch, and they are often taken along hillsides having an angle of 80° F. They were evidently constructed as fortifications, but they may also have served to mark the boundaries of the *náds*, or local divisions, into which the country was once divided.

Agriculture.—Cultivation is confined to the narrow beds of the river valleys amid the primeval jungle, where the soil is industriously laid out in terraces wherever the use of the plough is possible. Excluding the forest tracts planted with coffee and cardamoms, the total cultivated area of Coorg in 1875-76 was 72,803 acres, of which 71,331 acres were under rice. Several varieties of rice are grown, the most common being the large-grained *dodda-batta.* A large amount of labour is expended on the cultivation. The seed is sown about the beginning of June in nurseries, which have previously been ploughed several times, and are always so situated as to command a perennial supply of water. The seedlings are planted out in July and August, and the harvest is gathered in December and January. Such is the richness of the soil and the abundance of the natural water supply, that the rice crop usually yields a return of fifty-fold, and a considerable surplus is available for export to the Malabar coast. Other crops grown only in certain localities are *rágí*, tobacco, sugar-cane, and cotton. Plantains and

oranges are to be seen round the homestead of every Coorg peasant. But the two most valuable products of Coorg are coffee and cardamoms. Coffee is said to have been introduced from Mysore in the days of the native Rájás. The first European plantation was opened in 1854. By 1875, the total number of coffee estates was 4235, covering an area of 106,759 acres, of which only 43,000 acres are planted, pretty equally divided between Europeans and natives, and yielding to Government a revenue of £9624. The total export in 1874-75 was 4235 tons, valued at £271,022. The industry has passed through many vicissitudes. Rash speculation in the early years caused unsuitable land to be taken up, and the forest was recklessly cleared of trees that would have furnished valuable shade. In recent times, the 'bug' and 'white borer' have destroyed the hopes of the planter, when at last they seemed on the point of realization. The cardamom plant (Elettaria cardomomum) grows wild in the evergreen jungles of the Western Gháts, at an elevation of from 2000 to 5000 feet. These jungles are leased out by the Government for a term of ten years at a lump sum of £30,000. The cardamom-yielding tracts demand a good deal of attention, and the gathering of the crop in October involves much hardship, as the jungles at that season are infested with innumerable leeches and poisonous snakes. It is estimated that a 'cardamon garden' ¼ acre in extent will yield 12½ lbs. of dry cardamom; the contingent expenditure is quite insignificant. Among plants introduced by European enterprise, may be mentioned Cinchona succirubra, Eucalyptus globulus, rhea nettle (Boehmeria nivea), Manilla hemp (Musa textilis), the chocolate tree (Theobroma cacao), and many English fruits, vegetables, and flowers. The cultivation of the tea-plant has as yet attracted little attention. The agricultural statistics for 1875-76 show a total of 120,818 horned cattle, 36,494 ploughs, and 358 carts.

Manufactures and Commerce.—Almost every article used in the country requires to be imported. The local manufactures are confined to the well-known Coorg knives, some of which are highly finished and handsomely ornamented; and the national *kamarband*, or girdle scarf with an ornamental border, woven in the frontier village of Sirangala. Local traffic passes along many paths and cross country roads. Two military trunk roads run across the country from Mysore to the Malabar coast. According to the statistics of traffic at the toll-bars, 40,982 laden carts and 35,183 laden pack-bullocks passed along these *ghát* roads, as they are called, in 1874-75. The following estimates are given of the total trade of Coorg in the following year:—Exports, £426,797, chiefly consisting of coffee (111,740 cwts., valued at £402,264), rice (38,638 cwts., valued at £9783), cardamoms (60 cwts., valued at £1920), and timber (£7911); imports, £263,461, including piece-goods (£41,926), wines and spirits (£29,738), food grains

(£22,583), and salt (£15,468). The principal external markets are the ports of Mangalore, Cannanore, and Tellicherri on the Malabar coast, and Bangalore in Mysore. Local transactions are conducted at weekly fairs, the largest of which is held on Fridays at Vira-rájendra-pét.

Administration.—Since the assumption of the Government by the British, the indigenous system of administration has been interfered with as little as possible. The chief resident British officer is styled Superintendent of Coorg, subordinate to the Chief Commissioner of Mysore. Under him are two Assistant Superintendents—one a European and the other a Coorg. For administrative purposes, the territory is divided into 6 *táluks*, each under the charge of a native official styled a *subahdár*. The *táluks* are again subdivided into 24 *náds* or *hoblis*. Each *nád* contains an average of about 68 square miles, and forms the separate charge of a subordinate official called a *parpattegar*. The following table shows the revenue and expenditure of Coorg in 1875-76:—

BALANCE-SHEET OF COORG FOR 1875-76.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
Land revenue,	£36,155	Civil and political,	£3,461
Forest,	10,266	Judicial,	2,869
Abkari or excise,	12,954	Police,	185
Assessed taxes,	589	Military,	17,113
Stamps,	2,283	Post office,	401
Law and justice,	4,720	Telegraph,	1,334
Education,	612	Superannuation,	443
Public works,	432	Ecclesiastical,	0
Post office,	931	Public works,	30,175
Telegraph,	375	Education,	1,828
Miscellaneous,	300	Local funds,	3,040
Provincal funds,	1,614	Miscellaneous,	534
Local funds,	2,480	Charges of collection,	1,264
		Allowances and assignments,	995
		Allowances to local officers,	1,385
Total,	£73,711	Total,	£65,027

The preceding table shows a surplus revenue of £8684, even including the heavy charges for the army and public works. The land revenue is chiefly derived from three sources—(1) *jamma* lands, held in inalienable tenure by the dominant race of Coorgs, at the rate of Rs. 5 per 100 *bhattis* of wet land, or about 5s. an acre, upon the condition of military and police service; (2) *saqu*, the ordinary cultivating tenure, at a fixed rate of Rs. 10 per 100 *bhattis*, or about 10s. an acre; (3) coffee lands, which are now assessed at a rate varying from 2s. to 4s. per acre. The forest revenue is chiefly derived from the sale of timber. In 1875-76, 8270 cubic feet of teak were sold, realizing £761; and 93½ tons of sandalwood, realizing £5154.

The regular police force consists only of about 30 officers and men in the two municipal towns of Merkára and Vira-rájendra-pét, maintained at a total cost of about £180 a year. The rural or village police is composed of about 3830 *jamá rayats*, or native Coorgs, holding their lands on a feudal tenure. These figures show 1 policeman to every ·5 square mile of the area, or to every 29 persons of the population. A regiment of Madras Native Infantry, with a strength of about 650 men of all ranks, is permanently stationed in cantonments at Merkára. During the year 1875, 467 criminal cases of all kinds were instituted; 316 persons were put on their trial, of whom 204, or 64 per cent., were convicted, being 1 person convicted of an offence in every 825 of the population. By far the greater number of convictions were for petty offences. In the same year, the average daily number of prisoners in jail was 75·01, including 2·79 females, or 1 prisoner to every 2244 of the population. The total cost of the jail was £983, or £13, 2s. 10d. per head. Jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £61.

Education has always been an object of solicitude to the Government ever since the British assumed the administration of the country. The Coorgs themselves are an intelligent race, and they have repeatedly displayed a strong desire to obtain the benefits of an English education for their children. In 1862, the Coorg head-men presented a remarkable petition to Government, desiring the establishment of a boarding-school at Merkára, towards the expense of which they were willing to contribute. This petition was favourably received, and the Merkára boarding-school has now become a recognised success. In the year 1875-76, there were altogether 45 schools in the territory under Government inspection, attended by 2141 pupils, giving 1 school to every 35 square miles of area, and 13 pupils to every thousand of the population. The total cost of education was £2135, or an average of £1 per pupil. Of the total number of pupils, 130 are girls, and as many as 1400 belonged to the Coorg race. The central school at Merkára, with Kanarese and Hindustání branches, and with boarding-houses for both boys and girls, was attended by 331 pupils. The number of boarders was 91.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Coorg is temperate and humid. The mountains of the Western Gháts collect the moisture that rolls up in clouds from the sea. At no time of the year are the wooded valleys free from fogs in the morning and evening. The rainy season proper, which is the result of the south-west monsoon, lasts from June to September. The downpour of rain is very heavy, and blasts of wind blow at the same time with great vehemence. The sun is often not seen for weeks; and as much as 75 inches of rain have been registered in the single month of July, including 7 inches within twenty-four hours. The average annual rainfall for the thirteen years ending 1875 amounts

123·3 inches. It has been observed that the amount has steadily creased in recent years, owing to the stripping of the forest-clad hills r coffee cultivation. The mean annual temperature during the same eriod is 66·6°. The hottest month is May, when the thermometer ometimes rises to 82°; but on the whole the variations of heat and cold re very moderate.

The Coorg climate is considered salubrious by the natives, and also by European residents, but its cold and damp exercise injurious effects on natives who have arrived from the plains of India. The nights are cool throughout the year, and Europeans are able to take exercise in the open air at all hours of the day. European children especially show by their rosy cheeks that they enjoy excellent health. The most prevalent disease is malarious fever, which renders the mountain valleys uninhabitable during the hot months. Cholera is almost unknown, but small-pox has made terrible ravages among the natives, despite the introduction of vaccination. In 1875, a total of 4167 deaths were reported, of which 3255 were ascribed to fevers, 324 to bowel complaints, 66 to small-pox, and 5 to cholera. The death-rate was 24·76 per thousand. There are 2 charitable dispensaries—at Merkára and Virarájendra-pét—at which, in 1875, a total of 311 in-door and 8692 out-door patients were treated. The total expenditure was £446, towards which Government contributed £285. In the same year, 1237 vaccinations were performed.

Coorla.—Town, Tanna District, Bombay.—*See* KURLA.

Cooum (*Kuvam*).—River in Chengalpat District, Madras; rises in the Conjevaram *táluk*, and flows due east, entering the sea in lat. 13° 4′ N., long. 80° 20′ E. The city of Madras stands at the mouth of this river, which receives the drainage of a portion of the town. The volume of water being too small to carry off all the impurities with which it is thus charged, the Cooum here degenerates into little better than an open sewer.

Corembu Gáonden.—Range of hills in the District of South Arcot, Madras, lying between 11° 51′ and 12° 1′ N. lat., and between 78° 42′ and 78° 55′ E. long.—*See* KALRAYANMALAI.

Coringa (*Koringa*; from *Kurangam*, 'a stag,' after the golden stag in the Rámáyána; the *Kalingou* of Pliny).—Town in Godávari District, Madras; situated at the northern or principal mouth of the Godávari river, 8 miles south of Cocanada, in lat. 16° 48′ 25″ N., and long. 82° 16′ 20″ E. Pop. (1871), 5649; number of houses, 1445. An early Dutch settlement, and once the greatest seaport and shipbuilding centre on the coast; but now, owing to the extension of the delta seaward, a place of little commercial importance. The silt carried down by the Godávari has formed a bar outside the entrance. In 1802, there was a dock here in which ships of the Royal Nav[y]

were repaired, and vessels drawing 12 and 13 feet could enter. The port is still frequented by native craft, and shipbuilding yards are at work in the hamlet of Tallarevu hard by. In 1874-75, 50 native craft of 9178 tons burden entered, bringing imports valued at £13,200, chiefly from Burma. The exports in the same year were valued at £66,350. The trade has been steadily declining for some years. The lighthouse on Hope Island, to the west, warns vessels off the Godávari shoals, and serves as a guide to ships making for Coringa or Cocanada. As, however, its present position is no longer suitable, the beacon is to be replaced by a screw-pile lighthouse, with an improved light farther north. Koringí is the name by which all Telugus are known in Burma and the Straits, and the name of the town itself is a relic of the ancient KALINGA. The town has twice (in 1787 and 1832) been overwhelmed by a tidal wave.

Coromandel.—The popular name applied more or less indefinitely to portions of the eastern coast of the present Madras Presidency. By some writers, the name is derived from the same source as that of the village of COROMANDEL, but the weight of authority is with those who suppose it to be a corruption of Cholamandalam, 'the country of the Cholas.' By this name it is repeatedly referred to in ancient native writings, and as recently as 1799, the seaboard of Coromandel was spoken of as Cholamandalam and Choramandalam. San Bartolomeo, relating in 1796 his experiences during his residence in this district, speaks of 'the coast of Ciolamandala, which Europeans very improperly call Coromandel,' but derives the name from *cholam* (Holcus sorghum), the millet which forms a staple food of the people. The true spelling of *cholam* in the vernacular, however, scarcely supports this theory.—*See* CHOLA.

Coromandel (*Karimanal*, 'black sand').—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras. Lat. 13° 26′ 10″ N., long. 80° 20′ 36″ E.; houses, 663; pop. (1871), 3050, chiefly fishermen. One of the oldest Dutch settlements on the east coast, and mentioned as a native town as early as 1499 by Italian travellers. The *karimanal* or sand used by the people instead of blotting paper is found here.

Cortelliar (*Kortalaiyáru*).—River of Madras; rises in the Káveripák tank in North Arcot, and, after passing through the Trivellúr and Ponneri *taluks*, flows into the Ennúr backwater about 12 miles north of Madras. This river is the chief source of the Madras water supply, being connected by means of an anicut with the Chodávaram and Red Hills tanks. An account of the waterworks will be found in the article on MADRAS CITY. It is said that at one time the bed of the present Cortelliar was occupied by the Palar. Tributaries—the Mahendranadi, Sappúr, Tritani, and Nagari. It was the delay caused by a sudden fresh in the Cortelliar river that led to the destruction of General Baillie's column by Haidar Alí in 1780.

Cossimbázár.—Decayed town in Murshidabad District, Bengal.—*See* KASIMBAZAR.

Cossipur.—Ancient village on the Húgli, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; now a northern suburb of Calcutta, on the river bank a few miles above the custom house. Lat. 22° 37′ 30″ N., long. 88° 24′ 30″ E. The site of an important Government gun foundry.

Cossye.—River of Bengal.—*See* KASAI.

Courtallum (*Kúttálam*).—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras, and the sanitarium of the District from June to December. Lat. 8° 56′ 20″ N., long. 77° 20′ E.; pop. (1871), 1216; number of houses, 369. Although only 700 feet above sea level, Courtallum receives the south-west monsoon through an opening in the Gháts, and possesses the climate and flora of a much higher elevation. The scenery is greatly admired, and the waterfalls are considered sacred by the natives. The smallest cascade is 100 feet high, and below it is a beautiful bathing pool and a pagoda. There are several bungalows occupied for a few months every year by European officials and their families from Palamkotta and Trevandurm. Distance from Palamkotta, 35 miles.

Covelong (*Kovilam*).—Village in Chengalpat District, Madras; 20 miles south of Madras. Lat. 12° 46′ N., long. 80° 17′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 1512, chiefly fishermen and salt manufacturers. One of the earliest European settlements, and formerly a place of some strategical importance. The fort, built by the first Nawáb of Arcot in 1745, was by a stratagem occupied in 1750 by the French. A party of soldiers, with arms concealed under their clothes, and simulating extreme sickness, were admitted into the fort by the kindly natives, who believed their tale, that they were the scurvy-smitten crew of the ship which had just anchored off the coast, unable to proceed. During the night, they rose and overpowered the garrison. In 1752, Lord Clive invested the place, and the French surrendered without firing a shot. The fortifications were then blown up. Covelong possesses a Roman Catholic church, almshouse, and orphanage. The salt-pans to the west of the village are large, and there is some export trade in this article. Excellent oysters are found here.

Cowcally.—Lighthouse in Midnapur District, Bengal.—*See* GEONKHALI.

Cox's Bázár.—Subdivision of Chittagong District, Bengal, lying between lat. 20° 43′ and 21° 54′ N., and between long. 91° 52′ and 92° 22′ E. Area, 877 square miles, with 214 villages and 25,564 houses. Pop. (1872), Muhammadans, 110,144; Hindus, 14,111; Buddhists, 16,898; Christians, 35; total, 141,188, viz. males, 69,661, and females, 71,527. Proportion of males in total population, 49·3 per cent.; average density of population, 151 per square mile; average number of houses per square mile, 29; persons per village, 660; persons per

house, 5·5. The Subdivision, which was constituted on the 15th May 1854, comprises the five police circles (*thánás*) of Máskhál, Chakiriá, Cox's Bázár, Rámu, and Ukhiá.

Cox's Bázár.—Headquarters of the Subdivision and police circle (*tháná*) of the same name, Chittagong District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Bághkhálí *khál*. Lat. 21° 26′ 31″ N., and long. 92° 1′ 2″ E. Named after Captain Cox, who in 1799 was appointed to look after the many thousand Magh fugitives who sought shelter in British territory after the conquest of Arakan by the Burmese. The Maghs still form three-fourths of the inhabitants of the town, although they only number 11·9 per cent. of the population of the Subdivision. The Census of 1872 returned the population of Cox's Bázár as follows:—Maghs, 3205; Muhammadans, 831; Hindus, 244; total, 4280, besides an estimate of 584 regular inhabitants who were absent at the time of the enumeration. The little town is now a thriving and important place, differing altogether in appearance from a Bengal village. The places of worship, and the rest-houses of the Maghs, are well and solidly built; and some of the houses of the well-to-do residents are not only substantial, but very picturesque and neatly ornamented. The houses are built entirely of timber raised on piles, after the Burmese fashion. For purposes of police and conservancy, a town corporation has been constituted, which in 1876-77 raised a revenue of £198 from a house tax, and expended £312; average incidence of taxation, 9½d. per head of the town population.

Cranganore.—Town in Travancore State, Madras.—*See* KRANGANUR.

Cuddalore (*Kúdalúr*).—*Táluk* of South Arcot District, Madras. Area, 459 square miles, of which all but 92 are cultivated or cultivable; houses, 39,935; pop. (1871), 284,849. Classified according to religion, there were—272,659 Hindus (being 128,050 Sivaites, 143,580 Vaishnavs, and 1029 Lingáyats); 7192 Muhammadans (being 6869 Sunnis, 308 Shiás, and 15 Wahábís); Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics, 4910; Buddhists and Jains, 88. The land revenue for 1874-75 amounted to £38,749. Chief places, CUDDALORE and PANROTI.

Cuddalore (*Kúdalúr*, *Gudulúr*, *Kudla-úr*, 'The town at the junction of the rivers').—Municipal town in Cuddalore *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras. Situated on the backwater formed by the confluent estuaries of the Guddilam and Parávanúr rivers; 116 miles by sea and 127 by rail south of Madras, and 16 miles south of Pondicherri. Lat. 11° 42′ 45″ N., long. 79° 48′ 45″ E. Number of houses, 7226; pop. (1871), 40,464, being 38,129 Hindus, 1982 Muhammadans, and 353 Christians. Of the adult males, 22 per cent. are weavers or small traders. The municipal area extends over 13 square miles, including 18 hamlets, which form the suburbs of the town; municipal income for 1875-76, £3535; incidence of taxation, about 8d. per head of the rate-

able population. As regards population, Cuddalore ranks tenth among the towns of the Madras Presidency. As the headquarters of the District administration, it contains all the chief public offices, courts, jail, etc., besides a railway station and sea-customs and marine establishments. It carries on a large land trade with Madras in indigo, oils, and sugar, which are manufactured here; and it exports by sea great quantities of grain. The vessels which entered harbour during 1874-75 aggregated 26,305 tons in burthen. For the same year the imports, chiefly railway material, were valued at £100,000; and the exports, principally rice, at £30,000. The river mouths having silted up, only native craft can come up to the town, but good anchorage in 6 to 8 fathoms can be obtained 1½ miles from the shore in the roads. The native town, Cuddalore proper, lies on a low, damp site about 2 miles south of Munjakupam, where the Europeans reside. It is remarkably well laid out, and the houses are exceptionally substantial. It contains the jail (formerly the Company's factory), the barracks, now unoccupied, and the marine and mercantile offices. The European quarter, which stands on slightly higher ground, contains all the public offices, scattered on a large plain, intersected by good roads with avenues of trees. The station has a reputation for being healthy. About 3 miles north-east are situated the ruins of Fort St. David.

The history of Cuddalore dates from 1682, when the Company opened negotiations with the 'Khán of Gingee' for permission to settle here. The first building was erected in 1683, and in the following year a formal lease was obtained for the site of the present port and the former fortress. During the next ten years, trade increased so rapidly that the Company erected Fort St. David for the protection of the place, and rebuilt their warehouses. On the fall of Madras in 1746, the British administration withdrew to Cuddalore, which was soon afterwards twice unsuccessfully besieged by the French under Dupleix. The headquarters of the Presidency remained here till 1752, when the Government returned to Madras. During this interval, the Jesuits were expelled from the settlement as spies in the French service. In 1755, Lord Clive was in command at Cuddalore. In 1758, the French occupied the town, and stormed and destroyed the fort; but in 1760, after the battle of Wandiwash, the British regained possession. In 1782, it again fell into the hands of the French and their ally Tipú Sultán, by whom the fortifications were sufficiently renewed to enable it to withstand in the following year a siege and several assaults. During the siege, a drawn battle was fought in the roadstead between the French and English fleets. In 1785, Cuddalore was formally restored to the British, and in 1801 it was included in the cession of the Karnatic. Of the fort, only a few ruins now remain, but it must once have been a place of considerable strength.

Cuddapah (*Kadapa*).—A British District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 13° 25′ and 16° 20′ N. lat., and 77° 55′ and 79° 40′ E. long. Area, 8367 square miles; population in 1871, 1,351,194. Bounded on the north by the District of Karnúl (Kurnool), on the east by Nellore, on the south by North Arcot and the State of Mysore, and on the west by Mysore and Bellary.

Physical Aspects.—Cuddapah (Kadapa) District lies beneath the western slopes of the Eastern Gháts and the opposing face of the Mysore plateau, forming an irregular parallelogram, shut in on the east and south by high mountain ranges, and on the west and south-west stretching away into broad plains. The Pálkonda and Sesháchalam range bisects it into two divisions, which differ materially in general aspect and character. The upper half consists in part of a bare expanse of black cotton-soil, and elsewhere of thickly wooded hills, from which impetuous torrents descend in the rainy season to the Pennér, the only stream in the District which deserves the name of river. The other streams of Cuddapah, though small, are of value to the country, and on their banks are found all the busiest centres of population. The lower half of the District, skirted on the east and north-east by the Sesháchalam range, slopes up gently from the foot of those hills till it merges in the Mysore plateau, undulating so continuously throughout its extent that it would be difficult to find in the whole a perfectly level mile of ground. Isolated hills and masses of rock stud the country, in some instances, as at Garram-konda, forming objects of peculiar picturesqueness and grandeur. The main watershed of the country runs north-west and south-west, discharging its drainage into the central valley of the Pennér, the chief tributaries being the Kundair and Sagalair. The other larger streams are the Chitrávati, Pápaghni, and Cheyair. The last of these exhibits scenery of remarkable grandeur along its course, and all have hills of alluvial soil, varying in breadth, sloping up from either bank. The forest area is large, and the timber—blackwood, *yellama*, *yept*, *shand-amon*, etc.—valuable; but only 10,000 acres are at present conserved, and these chiefly for railway requirements. Among the *feræ naturæ*, cheetah, *sámbhar* deer, bear, wild boar, and porcupine may be considered characteristic of the jungle-clad hill tracts, while elsewhere antelope, wolf, hyæna, and fox are common.

History.—Passing over the tradition which assigns to Cuddapah a conspicuous place in the story of Ráma, and that debateable era when three Hindu kingdoms are said to have divided Southern India, the history of the District begins with the Muhammadan period. The Hindu kings of Vijáyanagar then exercised feudal authority over this tract, which was long saved by its numerous hill forts from falling under permanent subjugation at the hands of the Musalmáns. But after the disaster of Tálikot in 1565, Cuddapah became the high road for the armies

ading the Karnatic, and was distributed piecemeal among various uhammadan chiefs subordinate to the Golconda kingdom. One of ese, the Garramkonda Nawáb, exercised more than local powers; e enjoyed the privilege of coining money, and, except for the feudal bligation of military aid, was subject to none of the usual conditions of a tributary. But about 1642, the estate fell into the possession of the Marhattás, and the chief had to fly to the Nizám, by whom he was subsequently assigned another *jágir*. Meanwhile, Cuddapah was given up to plunder by Sivaji, the Marhattá, who placed Bráhmans in charge of each of the conquered strongholds, and, to use a phrase of contemporary history, 'scraped the country to the bones.' A gap now occurs in local history. But early in the following century, we find Abdúl Nabí Khán, the 'Cuddapah Nawáb,' acting independently of the Nizám, and laying under tribute the *poligárs* of the tract known as the Báramahál, notably the chief of Punganúr, who, besides an annual payment of 32,000 pagodas, was required to maintain a force of 2000 armed men. Three Nawábs of Cuddapah ruled in succession, each increasing the power bequeathed to him; but the third came into collision with the rising power of the Marhattás about the year 1732, and from this event dates the decline of the house. In 1750, however, the Cuddapah Nawáb was still playing an important part in the affairs of the Karnatic. In the following year, he headed the conspiracy in which Muzaffar Jang, the Nizám, lost his life, in the Luckereddipalli Pass—killed, it is said, by the Nawáb of Cuddapah himself. In 1757, the Marhattá chiefs gained a decisive victory over the Pathán chiefs at the town of Cuddapah, but lost all advantage of the victory by the advance of the army of the Nizám, with a French contingent under M. Bussy. Meanwhile, Haidar Alí had risen to supreme power in Mysore. Jealous of the Marhattá successes, he intrigued successfully for the surrender of Garramkonda fort; and in 1769, having signed a truce with the British, turned all his attention to Cuddapah. In a secret treaty with the Nizám he stipulated for a joint invasion of the Coromandel coast, and in the distribution of conquered lands, in return for the possession of Cuddapah by Mysore. A series of invasions and counter-invasions followed. In 1782, on the death of Haidar Alí, a descendant of the last Cuddapah Nawáb claimed the title, and was supported by a small British detachment, which, however, was treacherously massacred during a parley. For the next few years, Cuddapah enjoyed comparative rest; but in 1790, when the Marhattás, the Nizám, and the British combined to overthrow Tipú Sultán, the Nizám's first step was to recover Cuddapah. In 1792, Tipú signed a treaty ceding the whole of the Cuddapah District, with the fort of Garramkonda, to the Nizám, who granted it in *jágír* three years later to M. Raymond, to defray the expenses of the contingent he was commanding. But the Madras

Government, disquieted by this occupation of so important a frontier post, compelled M. Raymond's withdrawal by threatening to attack Cuddapah. For the next few years, a general scramble for the forts of the District took place among the *poligárs*. In 1799, after the fall of Seringapatam, Cuddapah was transferred by the Nizám to the British, in satisfaction of arrears of pay due by him to his British contingent. In 1800, this cession was formally ratified, and since that date the District has had but little history. Sir Thomas Munro, the first Collector of 'the Ceded Districts' (Cuddapah, Kurnool, and Bellary), found Cuddapah held by some 80 *poligárs* or feudal chiefs, all maintaining bodies of retainers who subsisted entirely by plundering the open villages. These feudal chiefs asserted their independence, but, one after the other, were reduced to submission; and the District was surveyed, assessed, and brought into order by the establishment of a police and a settled administration of justice. In 1807, when Sir Thomas Munro retired from his post, the Madras Government recorded their appreciation of his services in the following order:—'From disunited hordes of lawless plunderers and freebooters, the people are now as far advanced in civilisation, submission to the laws, and obedience to the magistrates as any of the subjects under this Government. The revenues are collected with facility; every one seems satisfied with his position, and the regret of the people is universal on the departure of the Principal Collector.' In 1832, the Patháns of Cuddapah, affecting to see in an act committed by one of their own faith an attempt to outrage a place of worship, raised a riot, in which the Sub-Collector (Mr. Macdonald) was murdered. In 1846, a descendant of the dispossessed *poligár* of Nossum, dissatisfied with the pension he received, attempted to excite a general rebellion, and collected on the frontiers two forces of several thousand men. Each was promptly defeated by British detachments, and before the end of the year quiet was completely restored. Since that date, no event of historical importance has occurred. Of all the turbulent *poligárs* not one now remains in occupation of his ancestral property, but their descendants receive small allowances from the Government. Their estates are now held on direct tenure by the cultivators, to whom they have been leased in small lots.

Population.—The Census of 1871 disclosed a total population of 1,351,194 persons, living in 339,603 houses, on an area of 8367 square miles, giving an average of 4 persons per house, and 161 per square mile. The adult population consists of 456,075 males and 452,460 females; of the children, 237,325 are boys and 205,334 girls,—showing the proportion of females to males to be only 95 to 100. Arranged according to religion, Hindus numbered 1,242,317; Muhammadans, 103,676; Christians, 4973; Buddhists, Jains, and 'others,' 228. The Hindus, classified according to form of worship, showed 50·3 per cent. Vaish-

navs, 49·2 per cent. Sivaites, leaving 0·5 for Lingáyats and others. Classified according to caste, 43·6 per cent. were Vallálars (cultivators); 8·5 per cent. Idaiyars (shepherds); 5·2 per cent. Kaikalars (weavers); 3·4 per cent. Chettis (traders); 3·7 per cent. Sembadavan (fishermen); 2·5 per cent. Bráhmans (priests); 1·5 per cent. Kshattriyas (warriors); leaving 8·6 per cent. for all the others, 8·5 per cent. unclassified, and 14·5 returned as 'Pariahs.' Of the Vallálars, 54·9 per cent. engage in their caste occupation; of the Brahmans, 24 per cent. own landed property, and 25·1 per cent. follow the learned professions, or are in Government employ. It is noteworthy, that while the Bráhmans are by a vast majority returned as Siva-worshippers, the Kshattriyas are generally Vaishnavs. The Muhammadans arrange themselves as follows:—Shaikhs, 66,831, or 64·5 per cent. of the whole; Sayyids, 10,654; Patháns, 8680; Mughals, 1325; and 'others,' 16,186: females bearing to males a proportion of only 90 to 100. Of the Christians (4973), nearly all are Pariahs, and of the Protestant faith. The wandering tribes—known to the police as 'the criminal classes'—comprise the Yanadis, Yerukalas, Chenchuwars, and Sugalis. The first of these, a low-statured race, live among the hills on the frontier of the District, descending at times to take employment in the plains. In their unreclaimed state they are the determined plunderers of the shepherds' flocks. In the Forest Department their woodcraft is turned to good account. The Yerukalas will seldom settle, preferring to wander about, under pretence of collecting jungle produce. A favourite form of crime with them is to enter an unguarded house at night and wrench the jewels from the ears of sleeping women and children. The Sugalis, who are comparatively harmless, resemble European gipsies in their wandering life, picturesque costume, and pilfering tendencies. The Chenchuvars, physically a fine race of men, are most incorrigible criminals, showing little regard to human life.

The inhabitants have doubled during the last forty years, but the emigrants to the West Indies from the neighbouring Districts would here still find plenty of land. From Cuddapah there is no emigration. Of the 5⅓ millions of acres in Cuddapah District only 1⅔ millions are reported as under tillage. Of the population, about 500,000 may be called 'urban,' inhabiting 14 towns with a population exceeding 5000, and 121 villages with from 2000 to 5000 inhabitants. Number of minor hamlets, 1161, giving over 7 to the square mile. The chief towns are—CUDDAPAH, with 16,275 inhabitants; BADVAIL, 8337; PRODDATUR, 6709; and POLI, VAMPALLI, NANDIALAMPET, PATA CUDDAPAH, VUTUKURU, and VONIPENTA, all having over 6000 inhabitants.

Natural Calamities.—Between 1800 and 1802 there was considerable distress in Cuddapah, and relief works were opened. Again in 1866 very high prices obtained; and the great drought of 1876-77 caused severe suffer-

ing throughout the District. In 1865, part of the District suffered from a visitation of grasshoppers. From the commencement of the District history, alternate droughts and floods appear to have prevailed. Three years of drought preceded a great bursting of the tanks in 1803; and in 1818, after a dry year, 180 tanks in one *táluk* alone were breached by the sudden and excessive rainfall. In 1820, a violent storm burst 770 tanks, causing the destruction of a few human lives and many cattle. In 1851, there was a greater mortality from the same cause; in one of the villages swept away, 500 people were drowned. Cuddapah suffered severely in the great Madras famine of 1877, for an account of which see the article on MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

Commerce and Trade.—The manufacture of cloth from the cotton produced in the District ranks first among the local industries. In 1804, the number of looms was estimated, under the East India Company's system of 'Investments,' at 19,626, turning out annually goods to the value of £230,000; and in 1875, the out-turn of cotton having more than doubled since 1804, the value of the manufactured produce was estimated at £400,000. The manufacture of indigo has of late years decreased, the European firms having closed their factories, and the business falling entirely into the hands of native producers. The sugar made in Cuddapah commands a market throughout Southern India, the cane being of superior quality. The roads of the District aggregate a length of 850 miles (a great portion being over cotton soil, and passable only in dry weather), and are spread equally over the District. They branch off from the three main lines from Madras to Bellary, Karnúl (Kurnool), and Kadiri. A canal 35 miles in length runs *viâ* Proddatúr to Cuddapah, and arrangements were in progress in 1875 for establishing water traffic. The Madras Railway (north-western line) traverses the District for 121 miles, with 10 stations.

The religious institutions of the District are important in the aggregate, Government continuing an ancient allowance of £2700, and local piety contributing very extensive endowments. The Car Festival in the Proddatúr and other *táluks*, the Bathing Festival of Pushpagiri, and the Ganga *jatrá* Festivals, all attract large assemblages, and facilitate the interchange of local products.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, the District has been divided into 11 *táluks*. The land revenue amounted in 1875 to £196,000, while excise yielded £24,000, stamps and registration fees £13,000, and miscellaneous items £22,000. Total revenue, £256,000. The cost of all the establishments — revenue, police, judicial, etc.—for the same year was £52,000, while the estimated money value of the lands alienated in payment of service amounts to £77,000; making the total cost of local administration to be £129,000. This does not, however, include the alienations in personal and religious

'Ináms,' amounting to an additional £60,000. In fact, such an excessive quantity of 'Inám' land has been granted in this District, that the cultivating class is to a considerable degree independent of Government land. The administration of justice is conducted by 8 civil and 21 criminal courts, the proceeds of the former in fees not only meeting all the expenses of the civil courts, but going far to cover those of the criminal. The returned value of the civil causes disposed of in 1875 was £103,700; the total number of criminal cases, 4532, resulting in the conviction of 3185 persons. The police force comprises 1033 men of all ranks, giving a proportion of 1 to every 9 square miles and every 1300 of the inhabitants, and is maintained at a cost of £14,243. The District possesses one jail in the town of Cuddapah, with a daily average population of 155, costing £8, 12s. per head.

Education is provided by grants from the local funds, amounting to £1359 annually, and by Government aids to about the same sum. In 1872-73, there were 347 schools distributed over the District, with a total attendance of 6315 scholars, besides the *zillah* school with an average roll of 200 more. The one municipality is that of Cuddapah, with an income, in 1875-76, of about £2000, from which are supported an elementary school, civil dispensary, vaccinating staff, conservancy establishments, and municipal police.

Medical Aspects.—The climate, though trying, does not appear to be unhealthy. In January and February, north-east winds, cool and dry, keep the temperature at about 75° F., but in March the heat begins to increase, and till the end of June the mean varies from 95° to 100° in the shade. From July to September inclusive, cooler breezes, with occasional showers, prevail from the south-west, and from September to December, during the north-east monsoon, the temperature averages 70° F. Cholera occasionally visits the District in an epidemic form, but causes no serious mortality. Small-pox shows a lower death-rate than in any other District of the Presidency, except Ganjám and South Kanara. Fever carries off great numbers annually; and to this cause is probably due the reputation for unhealthiness unfairly bestowed on the District. The disease called 'Madura-foot' is endemic in the black cotton-soil *táluks*. Vaccination still meets with opposition, and makes but little progress. The annual rainfall of the District between 1866 and 1873 averaged 31½ inches.

Cuddapah (*Kadapa*).—*Táluk* of Cuddapah District, Madras. Area, 761 square miles, containing 41,072 houses, grouped into 165 towns and villages; pop. (1871), 163,013. Classified according to religion, there were 144,227 Hindus (viz. 85,976 Sivaites, 57,800 Vaishnavs, 451 Lingáyats and 'others'); 18,220 Muhammadans (including 16,692 Sunnis, 211 Shiás, and 1317 'others'); 409 Christians; 157 Buddhists, Jains, and 'others.' The *táluk* forms a basin completely shut in on

three sides by the Lankamalái and Sesháchalam Hills, and watered by the Pennér, which within its limits receives three tributary streams, the Kundair, Pápaghni, and Bugair. Diamond-yielding quartzite is found at the foot of the hills above Chennúr and Kanuparti. The farming carried on in this *táluk* is decidedly superior to that of the rest of the District. The use of both irrigation and manure is more resorted to than elsewhere, and the rotation of crops is better understood. Cuddapah indigo, which differs in being extracted from the plants when green, commands a higher price than the dye from other parts of the Presidency. Of the total area, only about one-third pays land revenue; 16,000 acres of 'wet' land yielding £11,450, and 125,600 acres of 'dry,' £11,898. The chief places are Cuddapah, Kamalápuram, Akkayapali, and Komadi. The Madras Railway has 3 stations within the *táluk*, and good roads run alongside the canal which traverses the river valley. Education is very backward, even the ordinary *payal* schools being remarkably few in number, and exclusive. Historically, the interest of the *táluk* centres in its chief town, CUDDAPAH.

Cuddapah (*Kadapa*).—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Cuddapah District, Madras; situated in lat. 14° 28′ 49″ N., and long. 78° 51′ 47″ E., in the Pennér valley, 6 miles south of that river and 161 miles by rail from Madras; pop. (1871), 16,275. Municipal income for 1875-76, £2010; incidence of taxation, about 10d. per head. As the headquarters of the District, Cuddapah contains all the chief offices of local administration, the Judge's and Collector's courts, jail, telegraph and post offices. The railway (opened in 1868) showed for 1875 a local passenger traffic of 140,786, and in goods 13,524 tons, yielding altogether a revenue of £23,007. The trade consists chiefly in the export of indigo and cotton, and the principal industry is the weaving of coarse cloth. The town, being enclosed on three sides by bare sandstone hills, is one of the hottest in the District, the mean temperature in the shade from March to July inclusive being 97° F.; annual rainfall, 27 inches. The native town is unhealthily situated and squalidly built, the proportion of substantial buildings being much lower than in many large villages. Cuddapah is sometimes said to have been a place of importance under the Vijáyanagar dynasty. But the existence of a hamlet in the neighbourhood called Old Cuddapah (Pata-Cuddapah), and the total absence of ancient Hindu buildings, prove the modern origin of the present town. Muhammadan local tradition names Abdúl Nabí Miá as the founder; but it seems more probable that one of the Pathán lieutenants of the Golconda army erected the fort about 1570. It is not till the beginning of the 18th century, when the so-called Nawáb of Kurpa (Cuddapah) had absorbed the whole of the tract known as the Bálághát, except Gúti, and had extended his conquests to the Báramahál, that Cuddapah appears as the

capital of a separate kingdom (*see* CUDDAPAH DISTRICT). In 1748, the Nawáb followed the standard of the Nizám Muzaffar Jang to the Southern States, and two years afterwards murdered his lord paramount with his own hand. Eight years later, retribution overtook him; his country was invaded by the Marhattás, to whom he was compelled to cede half his estates, including Garramkonda fort; and at the same time Haidar Alí of Mysore wrested the Báramahál from him. In 1769, the Nawáb of Cuddapah paid tribute to Mysore; but, having in the following year joined the Nizám, he was attacked by Haidar Alí, and, in spite of a gallant defence, his fort was captured. Soon after, the Nawáb surrendered at Sidhaut. In 1792, Cuddapah was restored by treaty to the Nizám, who made it over for a time in *jágir* to M. Raymond, for the expenses of the French contingent. In 1800, it was ceded to the East India Company, and in 1817 constituted the headquarters of the District. Since 1868 it has ceased to be a military cantonment.

The name has been derived from *Kripa*, 'mercy' (Sansk.); but others connect it with *Gadapa*, 'a gate' (Telugu)—*i.e.*, 'the gate to Tripati.' During the Muhammadan occupation, the town was called Nekuámábád.

Culna.—Subdivision and town in Bardwán District, Bengal.—*See* KALNA.

Cumbum (*Kambham*).—Town in Madura District, Madras; situated in the valley of the same name, in the south-west of the District. Lat. 9° 44′ 50″ N., long. 77° 20′ 35″ E.; pop. (1871), 14,770; number of houses, 2957. The valley is a fertile tract sheltered by the Travancore Hills, and watered by a feeder of the Vygai. The fort of Cumbum was stormed by Vishwanáth Naik in the 16th century.

Cumbum (*Kambham*).—Small municipality in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras, and headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Lat. 15° 34′ 15″ N., long. 79° 9′ 1″ E.; pop. (1871), 7137; number of houses, 2672. The municipal revenue (about £600) is inadequate to meet the sanitary wants of the place; and no town in the Presidency has a worse reputation for fever. A tank or lake has been formed here by damming the Gundlakamma river by a *bandh* 57 feet high, thrown between two hills. This lake has an area of about 15 square miles, and is largely used for irrigation. The only building of interest is a dismantled fort.

Cutch (*Kachchh*).—Native State under the political superintendence of the Government of Bombay; bounded on the north and north-west by the Province of Sind, on the east by Native States under the Pálanpur Agency, on the south by the peninsula of Káthiáwár and the Gulf of Cutch, and on the south-west by the Indian Ocean. Its limits, inclusive of the great salt marsh termed the *Runn* (Rann), extend from lat. 22° 47′ to 24° 40′ N., and from long. 68° 26′ to 71° 45′ E. The

greatest length from east to west is 205 miles, and the breadth from north to south (which is nearly equal throughout its whole extent), 110 miles. The area of the State, exclusive of the Runn, is about 6500 square miles; estimated population in 1872, 487,305. The capital is Bhuj, where the Chief or Ráo resides.

From its isolated position, the special character of its people, their peculiar dialect, and their strong feeling of personal loyalty to their ruler, the peninsula of Cutch has more of the elements of a distinct nationality than any other of the dependencies of the Bombay Government.

Physical Aspects.—The whole territory of Cutch is almost entirely cut off from the continent of India—north by the Great Runn, east by the Little Runn, south by the Gulf of Cutch, and west by the Arabian Sea and the eastern or Kori mouth of the Indus. Though on the whole treeless, barren, and rocky, the aspect of the country is varied by ranges of hills and isolated peaks, by rugged and deeply-cut river beds, and by well-tilled valleys and tracts of rich pasture land. On the south, behind a high bank of sand that lines the sea-coast, lies a low, fertile, and well-cultivated plain from 20 to 30 miles broad. Beyond this plain, the Dora, a broad belt of hilly ground, stretches east and west from 500 to 1000 feet above the level of the plain. Behind the Dora range lies a rich valley, bounded to the north by the Charwár, a second line of hills parallel to the first, but higher, narrower, and, especially along the northern side, more precipitous. Again, beyond the Charwár Hills, a low-lying belt of rich pasturage, about 7 miles broad, stretches northwards to the Great Runn or salt desert; and, close to its southern shore, four hilly islands (from one of which rises Patcham Pír, the highest point in Cutch, 1450 feet above the level of the sea) stand out from the bed of the Runn. Each of the two chief ranges that, stretching east and west, form as it were a double backbone to the peninsula of Cutch, is marked by one peak of special height and of peculiar shape. Of these, Nánu, the centre point of the southern hills, is nearly 800, and Indria, the most prominent peak of the northern hills, nearly 900 feet above the sea level. Besides these two main ranges, in the south-west a broken line of hills, and from the central plains isolated peaks, rising to a commanding height, give the greater part of the State a rugged and rocky appearance. Except some brightly-coloured cliffs and boulders, the hills are dusty brown and white, their sides bare or covered with a stunted brushwood.

There are no permanent rivers in Cutch, but during the rainy season (July to October) many streams of considerable size flow from the central ranges of hills northwards to the Runn and southwards to the Gulf of Cutch. For the rest of the year, the courses of these streams are marked by a succession of detached pools. Owing to the

porous nature of the upper soil, storage of water in ponds and reservoirs is difficult. But in rocks, at no great depth from the surface, water is readily found, and wells yielding excellent supplies are numerous.

The Runn.—The most striking physical feature of Cutch is the Runn or salt desert, stretching along the north and east of the State, which is estimated to cover an area of nearly 9000 square miles. It is believed to be the bed of an arm of the sea, raised by some natural convulsion above its original level, and cut off from the ocean. It almost completely surrounds the State with a belt, varying in width from 25 to 35 miles on the north to 2 miles on the east. The northern or larger Runn—measuring from east to west about 160 miles, and from north to south about 80—has an estimated area of not less than 7000 square miles. The eastern or smaller Runn (about 70 miles from east to west) covers an area estimated at nearly 2000 square miles. In appearance and general character, the greater and lesser Runns differ but little. The soil is dark, and is generally caked or blistered by the action of the sun on the saline particles with which the surface is impregnated. At times, the whole surface, particularly of the eastern part of the Runn, is covered with salt. With the exception of some of the smaller islands, on which grow a few stunted bushes and grass, there is no sign of vegetable life. The wild ass roams over the Runn, finding subsistence on the grasses in the islands and at the borders. During the rains, when the whole tract is frequently laid under water, a passage across is a work of great labour, and often of considerable danger. Some of this is salt water, either driven by strong south winds up the Lakhpat river from the sea, or brought down by brackish streams; the rest is fresh, the drainage of the local rainfall. In spite of this yearly flooding, the bed of the Runn does not, except in a few isolated spots, become soft or slimy. The flood-waters, as they dry, leave a hard, flat surface, covered with stone, shingle, and salt. As the summer wears on, and the heat increases, the ground, baked and blistered by the sun, shines over large tracts of salt with dazzling whiteness, the distance dimmed and distorted by an increasing mirage. On some raised plots of rocky land, water is found, and only near water is there any vegetation. Except a stray bird, a herd of wild asses, or an occasional caravan, no sign of life breaks the desolate loneliness. The eastern Runn commences to fill in March, with the south-west winds; and during the time it contains water, it is affected by the tides, and is consequently very difficult to pass, as the water is constantly in motion. It attains its usual height before a drop of rain falls, by the influx of water from the Gulf of Cutch. Unseasonable rain, or a violent south-west wind at any period, renders the greater part of the Runn impassable. It generally becomes passable by the end of October; but even then for passage by troops it is recommended that the Runn be

crossed by night to avoid the glare, and working parties should be detached in advance to clear wells. The Runn is considerably higher in the centre than along the edges; while the centre, therefore, is dry, there is frequently water and mud at its sides. The little Runn is at present undergoing a marked change. Year by year the sea is spreading farther eastward; and, along the coast, places which a few years ago were inaccessible to boats are now open to water traffic. Whether this change is due to a rise in the level of the sea, or to a fall in the level of the land, has not been ascertained.

Earthquakes.—The peculiar character of these great salt wastes, and the eruptions of basalt and fire-rent cliffs along the base of the hills, mark the early force of volcanic action in Cutch. Volcanoes are no longer at work; but frequent shocks of earthquake show that this tract is still the centre of strong subterranean energy. On four occasions during the present century—viz. 1819, 1844, 1845, and 1864—earth-quake waves have crossed Cutch. The most severe were the shocks of 1819, when 7000 houses at Bhuj, including the Ráo's palace, were destroyed, and 1150 people buried in the ruins. Every fortified town in the State was injured, and, in the west, the fort of Terá, considered the strongest in Cutch, was levelled with the ground. One effect of this convulsion was the fall, at several parts of its surface, of the bed of the Runn. Sinking is reported to have taken place in the east, in the north, and in the west. In the west, the change of level was most marked; for about 16 miles on either side of Sindri, a fortified custom-house on the left bank of the Kori river the land would seem to have suddenly sunk from 8 to 12 feet, and the place has since been occupied by an inland lake or lagoon. North of Sindri, after the earthquake was over, a bank about 50 miles long and from 10 to 18 feet high, stood out from the plains which had before stretched as level as the sea. On account of its sudden appearance across the old bed of the Indus, the natives gave to this bank the name of Allah bandh, or 'God's embankment.' Early observers speak of it as an upheaval of the surface. But from the north side there is little sign of any rise in the land; and a few years after its formation (1826), the flood-waters of the Indus, keeping their former course, forced their way through the dam. These two considerations would seem to show that the apparent height of the bank, as seen from the south, is to some extent due to the fall in the level of the land in that direction.

Minerals, etc.—Both iron and coal are found. Iron was formerly smelted, but at present the Cutch mines remain unworked. The coal found in the Charwár Hills is of an inferior description, and has not been found worth the expenses of working. Alum and a coarse variety of saltpetre are also produced. In former times, alum was prepared in great quantities; but, partly owing to the competition of Chinese alum,

and partly because Cutch alum is said to injure cloths prepared with it, the demand has of late years almost entirely ceased. The Karimori Hills furnish strong, tough millstones; and building stone abounds in Cutch. Some of the best varieties are furnished by the lower jurassic rocks, and others much used are found in the upper tertiary beds. There are no forests in the State. Of large game, panthers and wild boar are to be found.

Population and History.—The population of Cutch was, in 1872, 487,305 persons, inhabiting about 6500 square miles (exclusive of the Runn), and 167,378 houses. Pressure, 75 per square mile. Hindus, 369,184; and Muhammadans, 118,063. About 14 per cent. of the Hindu population were Rájputs, and 14 per cent. Bráhmans and Banias; while the cultivating, artisan, and other lower castes constituted about 66 per cent. of the Hindu population. Of the Rájputs, the Ráo and his Bháyads, or 'Brethren of the Tribe,' are Járejas. Among the land proprietors are a few Wághela Rájputs, who reside in the cultivated spots of the arid country between Cutch and Sind. The languages of Cutch are nominally two—Cutchí and Guzerathí; the former being the colloquial dialect, but little used now in literature or business. Guzerathí is the written language. Persian and Hindustání are but slightly used or known in the Province. The Járeja Rájputs, to which branch the Ráo of Cutch belongs, are descended from the Summa tribe, and came originally from the north. They are said to have emigrated from Sind about the 15th century under the leadership of Jám Lákha, son of Jára, from whom the tribe derive their name. Till 1540, the Jáms ruled over Cutch in three branches; but, about that year, Khengár, with the assistance of the Muhammadan King of Ahmedábád, succeeded in making himself head of the tribe, and master of the whole Province. He also obtained from the king the grant of Morvi in the north of Káthiáwár, as well as the title of Ráo. The Jám Ráwal, the uncle of Khengár, who had, previous to the latter's accession to full power, ruled over a great part of Cutch, fled to Káthiáwár, and founded the present reigning house of Nawánagar, the rulers of which are still called Jáms. For six generations from Khengár, the Ráos succeeded according to primogeniture; but on the death of Ráyadhan, his third son, Prágjí, opened to himself a road to the throne by murder and usurpation. In order, however, to pacify the son of his murdered brother, who had a superior right to the throne, he placed him in independent charge of Morvi, which is still in the possession of his descendants. Khengár gave his own niece, Kamábái, in marriage to the King of Ahmedábád, and one of Khengár's descendants gave his daughter in marriage to the then Gáekwár. On the death of Ráo Lakhpat, his sixteen wives burnt themselves on his funeral pile, and their tombs, built in a beautiful group, stand close to the British Residency in Cutch. The practice of female infanticide,

for which the Járejas were notorious, is said to have been introduced by the eponymous hero Jára, who killed his seven unmarried daughters because he had failed to find any suitable matches for them.

Agriculture.—There is a fair proportion of good arable soil in Cutch, on which wheat and barley of indifferent quality are cultivated, as well as cotton, the ordinary varieties of millet and pulse, and a little garden produce. Irrigation is practised over a considerable area. Of domestic animals, the camel is the most important; the Ráo possesses large herds of these animals, as well as of cows and buffaloes. Cutch has long been famous for its horses.

Trade and Manufactures.—Owing to the want of made roads, the country becomes almost impassable during the rainy months. But in the fair season, there is land communication northwards with the south-east Districts of Sind, with Márwár, with North Guzerat, and across the Little Runn with Jhaláwár, the north-eastern division of Káthiáwár. The trade of Cutch is chiefly by sea. The chief imports are, of raw produce—grain, butter, sugar, groceries, fruit, and timber; and of manufactured articles—iron, brass, and copper ware, cloth, furniture, stationery, and ivory. The exports are alum and cotton, Indian millet, pulse, and garlic, clarified butter, black coloured cloth, and silver ware. During the year 1876-77, 1069 shipping arrivals and 2191 departures were registered; while the trading craft belonging to Mándvi formed a fleet of 236 vessels, with an aggregate burthen of 10,087 tons. From Mándvi, which is the chief port of Cutch between the middle of August and the middle of June, vessels sail to Arabia, Muscat, Sind, Káthiáwár, Bombay, and the Malabar coast. The Cutch sloops, now generally built with decks called *cotiás*, are esteemed very good sea-boats; and the Cutch sailors, both Musalmáns and Hindus of the Koli caste, are equal to any to be found on the western coast of India, both in skill and daring. Mándvi used at one time to have a close connection with Zanzibar, on the African coast, from which were imported ivory, rhinoceros hides, and slaves. The importation of slaves into Cutch was stopped in 1836. Transit duties have been abolished since 1874. In addition to the beautiful embroidery and silver work, for which Cutch is chiefly noted, its manufactures of silk and cotton are of some importance.

Administration.—The present Ráo of Cutch, who is styled Mahá-rájá Mírzá Mahá Ráo Srí Khengárjí, was born about 1866, and succeeded on the death of his father, Ráo Pragmuljí, in 1876. He is the head of the Járeja Rájpúts, whose possessions are spread over Cutch and a great part of Northern and Western Káthiáwár. The present ruler is fifteenth in descent from Khengár. The gross revenue in 1875 was stated to be £135,118, but this is said to be less by £8000 than the previous year—a falling off attributed to failure of

n. The land revenue is generally farmed out each year. The áyads, who form the brotherhood of the Ráo, are bound to furnish oops on emergency. The number of these chiefs has been estimated 200, and the total number of the Járeja tribe in Cutch at about 0,000 souls. There have been several dissensions between the Ráo nd his Bháyads in which the British Government has mediated. Their estates do not descend according to primogeniture, but a system of subdivision prevails. The aggregate income of the Bháyads is estimated at about £150,000. A thorough survey of Cutch is now being carried out, which will, when completed, form a valuable aid towards the general pacification of the country. The chief cause of British intervention has been the suppression of piracy, in which the inhabitants of Wágad, or eastern Cutch, were the chief offenders. *Sati* and female infanticide were at one time very prevalent; and in 1842, the proportion of males to females in the Járeja tribe was found to be as 8 to 1. These customs have been suppressed. The proportion of males to females in 1852 was as 3 to 1; and in 1868, as 1·04 to 1.

The State is by treaty bound to defray the actual expenses of the subsidiary force, stationed in Bhuj for the protection of the country, to the extent of £18,695 a year. The Ráo of Cutch is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. The military force consists of 240 cavalry, 404 foot soldiers, 495 Arabs, and 40 artillerymen. In addition, there are some 3000 irregular infantry, and the Bháyads could furnish on requisition a mixed force of about 4000 men. There are 48 schools in the State, with a total attendance of 2756 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Lying along the parallel line of the tropic of Cancer, Cutch is almost beyond the rain-bringing influence of the south-west monsoon. The average annual rainfall for the 21 years ending 1869, is returned at 14·30 inches. During this period, the greatest amount registered in any one year was 34·88 inches in 1862, and the least, 1·10 inch in 1848. Along the sea-coast, throughout the year, the climate is agreeable; and over the whole Province, for nearly nine months, it is cool and healthy. But in April and May, burning winds and dust storms prevail, and, again, during October and part of November the heat becomes excessive. The prevailing diseases are malarious and rheumatic fever, ague, small-pox, measles, ringworm, guineaworm, syphilis, and dysentery.

Cuttack (*Kataka*, 'The Fort').—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 20° 1′ 50″ and 21° 10′ 10″ N. lat., and between 85° 35′ 45″ and 87° 3′ 30″ E. long. Area, as returned in the *Statistical Reporter* of October 1876, 3858 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,494,784 persons. Cuttack forms the central District of the Orissa Commissionership or Division. It is bounded on the north by the Baitaraní river and Dhámrá

estuary, which separate it from Balasor District; on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by Purí District; and on the west by the semi-independent tributary States of Orissa. The chief town, which is also the administrative headquarters of the District and of the Orissa Division, is CUTTACK CITY, situated at the point of bifurcation of the Mahánadi and Kátjurí rivers.

Physical Aspects.—Cuttack consists of three distinct tracts, which are continuations of three similar tracts which constitute BALASOR DISTRICT. The first is a marshy woodland strip along the coast, from 3 to 30 miles in breadth; the second, an intermediate arable tract of rice land in the older part of the delta; and the third, a broken hilly region, which forms the western boundary of the District. The marshy strip along the coast resembles the Bengal Sundarbans as regards its swamps, dense jungle, and noxious atmosphere, but lacks the noble forest scenery of the Gangetic tract; it is intersected by innumerable streams and creeks, whose sluggish waters deposit their silt, and form morasses and quicksands. Cultivation does not begin till the limits of this dismal region are passed. The intermediate arable plains stretch inland for about 40 miles, and are intersected by several large rivers, which emerge from the western mountains, and throw out a network of branches in every direction. Their channels, after innumerable twists and interlacings, frequently rejoin the parent stream as it approaches the ocean. This arable region is rich in rice-fields, and is dotted over with magnificent banian trees, thickets of bamboo, and fine palm and mango groves. It is the only really fertile part of the District. The hilly frontier tract separating the settled part of Orissa from the semi-independent Tributary States, consists of a series of ranges from 10 to 15 miles in length, running nearly due east and west, with thickly-wooded slopes and lovely valleys between. This region sends down to the plains large quantities of jungle products—*sál* and other timber, resin, *lac*, *tasar* silk, bees-wax, dyes, fibres, etc. Unfortunately, the timber is small, and only valuable as fuel. In this western tract lie all the hills of the District, except a few isolated peaks near Cuttack town. None exceed 2500 feet in height, but many of them are interesting for their shrines or their ancient forts. The chief of these are NALTIGIRI, with its sandal trees and Buddhist remains; UDAYAGIRI (Sunrise Hill), with its colossal image of Buddha, sacred reservoir, and ruined temples and caves; and ASSIAGIRI, the highest hill in the District (2500 feet), with its old mosque. The Mahávinyaka peak in the Tributary States, visible from Cuttack, has for ages been consecrated to the worship of Siva.

Rivers.—The salient feature of Cuttack District is its rivers. These issue in three magnificent streams, by three gorges, through the mountainous frontier on the west. In the extreme north of the District, the sacred BAITARANI, the Styx of the Hindus, emerges from Keunjhar

State, in which it takes its rise, and forms the boundary between Cuttack and Balasor. In the south the MAHANADI, or 'Great River,' pours down upon the delta from a narrow gully at Naráj, about 7 miles west of Cuttack town. About half-way between the two, the BRAHMANI enters the District. As in the case of all deltaic rivers, the beds of these great streams lie higher than the surrounding country; and the District is consequently divided into two great depressions,—one lying between the Baitaraní and the Bráhmaní, and the other between the Bráhmaní and the Mahánadi. After innumerable bifurcations, the three rivers enter the ocean by three different mouths. The waters of the Baitaraní and Bráhmaní meet before they reach the sea, and the combined stream flows into the Bay of Bengal at POINT PALMYRAS under the name of DHAMRA. The Mahánadi, or rather that portion of it which remains in Cuttack District, after many interlacings, forms two great estuaries,—one generally known as the DEVI, which, with its connected channel, the JOTDAR, enters the bay at the south-eastern corner of the District; and the other, bearing the name of the parent river, the Mahánadi, which empties itself into the sea at FALSE POINT, about half-way down the coast. Each of the three great rivers throws off, on its way through the District, a number of distributaries, those of the Mahánadi being the most numerous and important. The chief of these offshoots of the Mahánadi are the KATJURI (which again splits up into two branches, one of which is called the DEVI, while the other retains the name of Kátjurí) and the PAIKA, from its right or south bank; and the BIRUPA and CHITARTALA (which eventually becomes the NUN), from its north bank. The Bráhmaní receives, soon after its junction with the Baitaraní, an important tributary, the KHARSUA, which rises in the Tributary States.

Estuaries and Harbours.—The great rivers of Cuttack thus enter the sea by three noble estuaries,—the DHAMRA, MAHANADI, and DEVI,—which will be fully described under their respective names. The name Dhámrá strictly applies only to the northern and more important of the two channels by which the united waters of the Baitaraní, Bráhmaní, and Kharsuá enter the bay of Bengal. The southern channel is the Maipára river, the mouth of which is obstructed by bars and a high surf. The entrance to the Dhámrá, though also difficult, has greatly improved of late years, and is well marked; the minimum reduced depth at the lowest possible tide, according to the latest survey, is 6 feet 10 inches, but during flood-tide, vessels drawing as much as 18 feet pass in with safety. The port lies within the jurisdiction of Balasor District, the village of Dhámrá being situated on the north bank of the estuary. The Mahánadi estuary has several mouths, of which the principal debouches through the shoals to the south of the lighthouse on False Point. Although for many miles up the river there

is abundant depth for ships of 300 or 400 tons burthen, its mouth is blocked by a bar, which adds to the perils of shoal water the dangers incident to constant changes in the channel. A description of FALSE POINT, and a sketch of the history of the harbour and its trade, will be found in its proper place. Two separate channels lead inland from the anchorage — the JAMBU river on the north, and on the south the BAKUD creek, a short, deep branch of the Mahánadi. Unfortunately for inland navigation by ships, bars of sand intervene between the anchorage and these channels, and, except at high water, block the entrance to both. At full tide, cargo boats and steamers enter with ease. The Deví (which, with its channel, the Jotdár, forms the last part of the great network of rivers into which the Kátjurí branch of the Mahánadi bifurcates) enters the sea south of the boundary of Cuttack District. In this case, too, bars of sand across the mouth of the estuary render what would otherwise be an admirable harbour almost useless. Laden country boats can proceed up the river for a distance of 28 miles in the dry season; and an extensive rice trade has developed at MACHHGAON, about 9 miles from its month. A permanent beacon has been erected at the entrance of the estuary. Several tidal creeks, generally very winding and narrow, connect False Point with the Dhámrá and Deví estuaries, and are available for country boats all the year round.

Canals.—The great problem in the Orissa Districts is to prevent the rivers from destroying the crops during the rains, and at the same time husband and utilize them for agriculture and commerce in the dry season. The five great rivers which collect the drainage of 63,350 square miles of the hill country towards Central India dash down, in time of flood, 2,760,000 cubic feet of water per second upon the 5000 square miles of the Cuttack and Balasor delta; while, in hot weather, the supply dwindles down to 1690 cubic feet per second. To husband and control this enormous water supply, a vast system of canals was projected. An independent company (the East Indian Irrigation Company), with unguaranteed capital, undertook the execution of the necessary works for the irrigation of the Province, and its protection from floods; and in 1862, operations were commenced. An account of this great undertaking, designed to irrigate a total area of 1,600,000 acres, will be found in the article on ORISSA. The region over which the operations extend reaches along the coast from the CHILKA lake, in the south of Purí District, to the SALANDI (Sálnadi) river, in Balasor, and is traversed by the deltaic mouths of the three Cuttack rivers and the Sálandí. The company proved unable to complete their project, and Government took over their whole works from 31st December 1868. The chief canals of the system are four in number—viz. (1) The HIGH LEVEL CANAL, designed to provide a navigable trade route between Cuttack

and Calcutta *viâ* Midnapur and Ulubáriá; (2) the KENDRAPARA CANAL, extending from Cuttack to Mársághái, and designed to irrigate 385 square miles of country; (3) the TALDANDA CANAL, connecting Cuttack city with the main branch of the Mahánadi within tidal range, and intended both for navigation and irrigation; and (4) the MACHHGAON CANAL, connecting Cuttack with the mouth of the Devi river. The idea of making the High Level Canal a trade route between Cuttack and Calcutta has been abandoned; and the Orissa branch is not carried beyond Balasor District. The Bengal branch, starting from Ulubáriá, stops short at Midnapur town.

Embankments.—It is obvious that the immense volumes of water poured down upon the comparatively small Orissa delta, must spread over the country with overwhelming violence. From time immemorial, defensive embankments have existed along the banks of the rivers, but these have hitherto failed to protect the low lands lying between the various deltaic channels. In Cuttack District, 680 miles of Government and private embankments endeavour to regulate 35 rivers or distributaries; and it is recorded that between 1831 and 1867, £157,676 were spent in this District alone on the construction and repairs of these protective works. Adding the amount of revenue remitted in consequence of droughts during the same period, it has been officially estimated that the uncontrolled state of the Cuttack rivers cost during those thirty-six years a sum of £300,000. The two items for remissions of revenue and cost of protective works alone amount to an annual charge of more than 10¼ per cent. on the land revenue of the District. The great inundation of 1866 made no fewer than 413 breaches in Cuttack District, not one of the 35 embanked rivers being effectually controlled.

History.—In historical interest and administrative importance, Cuttack is by far the leading District of Orissa; and the town of the same name has continued to be the capital of the Province for the last 900 years. The District, however, has no separate history apart from that which will be found in the article on ORISSA, to which the reader is referred.

Population.—Several rough attempts have been made at an enumeration of the people of the District. An estimate made about 1822 returned the number at 440,784; the revenue survey of 1842 estimated at 553,073; and two subsequent attempts (the last in 1847) showed results of 800,000 and 1,018,979 persons respectively. All these calculations were made by counting the houses and assigning an average number of inhabitants to each. In 1855, this average was for the first time checked by actual enumeration in different parts of the District, and a Census founded on this corrected basis returned the population in that year at 1,293,084. But it was not till

1872 that a trustworthy Census was taken. This enumeration disclosed a total population of 1,494,784 persons, dwelling in 5500 villages, and inhabiting 281,430 houses. The area of the District, officially returned in 1876 at 3858 square miles, was, at the time of the Census, supposed to be 3178; and it is on this area that the following averages taken from the Census Report have been calculated:—Persons per square mile, 470; villages, *mauzas*, or townships per square mile, 1·73; houses per square mile, 88. The number of persons per village was 271, and of persons per house, 5·3. Classified according to sex, there were 725,330 males and 769,454 females; proportion of males in total population, 48·5 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years of age—males, 271,973, and females, 244,078; total, 516,051, or 34·5 per cent. The excess of females is explained by the fact that numbers of men from Cuttack District emigrate to Calcutta and other towns as palanquin-bearers, labourers, and domestic servants, leaving their wives and families behind them. Ethnically divided, the population consists of—European and other non-Asiatics, 193; Eurasians, 210; non-Indian Asiatics, 6; aboriginal tribes, 19,483; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 195,709; Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin, 1,239,176; and Muhammadans, 40,007. Of the non-Asiatics, 187 are British. The aboriginal tribes consist chiefly of the Kandhs, Bhumijs, Kols, and Savars, the last being by far the most numerous (16,589). An account of these tribes will be found in the article on the ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES. They are miserably poor, and subsist for the most part by selling firewood and the other products of their jungles; a few of them have patches of cultivated land, and many earn wages as day-labourers to the Hindus.

Among the higher castes of Hindus, the Bráhmans number 138,123; Khandáits, 254,762; Mastánís, 15,526; and Rájputs, 10,728. The Chásás, of whom there are 156,308, form the most numerous caste of the District; they are the great cultivating class of Orissa. The pastoral caste of the Goálás numbers 105,658 members. The number of persons of Hindu origin, not recognising caste, is returned at 32,890, of whom 24,330 are Vaishnavs, and 1911 Native Christians. Grouped together on the basis of religion, the Hindus number 1,430,040, or 95·7 per cent. of the total population; and the Muhammadans, 40,013, or 2·7 per cent. of the District population. The followers of Islám are divided into 3724 Sayyids, 20,138 Shaikhs, 1274 Mughals, 13,884 Patháns, and 987 unspecified. The total number of Christians in Cuttack is returned at 2314 (0·2 per cent. of population), of whom 1911 are natives. The Jains have a small settlement in Cuttack town; number in 1870, 19. The population is almost entirely rural; only three towns contain a population of more than 5000—namely, CUTTACK (50,878), JAJPUR (10,753), and KENDRAPARA (10,682)

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop of Cuttack, in common with the other Districts of Orissa, is rice. *Biáli*, corresponding to the *áus* or autumn rice of Bengal, is sown broadcast on high land in May, and reaped in September. A tradition relates that this rice was not made by Brahmá, the author of the universe, but invented by the Sage Viswámitra. It is therefore considered less pure, and its use is prohibited in religious ceremonies. The *sárad* rice corresponds with the *áman* or winter crop of Bengal. Some of its varieties are sown on low, marshy ground; others are carefully reared in nurseries, and removed, plant by plant, to higher and drier land. All attempts to introduce Carolina seed into Cuttack District have failed, owing, it is thought, to the unsuitability of the soil. The area under rice has increased by about one-fourth during the last twenty-five years, but the productive powers of the land are said to have diminished. This is accounted for by the constant working, which allows it no rest; and rotation of crops, although known in Cuttack, is not systematically practised. Deficiency of labour is also sometimes alleged as a cause for this decrease of fertility. The large and important public works now in course of construction have, to a small extent, withdrawn hired labour from agriculture; but the demand for it has increased. The other cereals grown in the District are *mánduá* (a grain peculiar to Orissa), wheat, barley; pulses, fibres, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and *pán*, are also produced.

Of the total area of 2,469,300 acres, 1,357,990, or 55 per cent., are returned as cultivated; 242,010, or 10 per cent., as cultivable but untilled; and 869,300 acres, or 35 per cent., as uncultivable waste. The cultivated area is thus distributed:—Under rainy season crops, 1,407,890 acres; under dry season crops, 97,900 acres; total, 1,505,790. Rice occupies 1,097,000 acres, or 81 per cent., of the cultivated land. The average produce of each crop per acre is thus returned:—Rice, 1000 lbs.; wheat, 150; inferior food grains, 270; cotton, 150; oil-seeds, 300; fibres, 160; sugar, 120; tobacco, 1000; vegetables, 3500 lbs. In 1870, the price of the best husked rice was 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; best unhusked paddy sold at 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.; wheat at 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 4d. a cwt. Irrigation has hitherto been conducted almost entirely by means of natural water-courses, but the artificial works now in progress will fertilize a large proportion of the District.

In the Orissa famine of 1866, the maximum prices reached were as follows:—Best cleaned rice, 3½ *sers* per rupee, or 32s. per cwt.; coarse rice, 4 *sers* per rupee, or 28s. per cwt. A farm of 25 acres or upwards is considered a very large holding; one of between 10 and 25 acres, a good-sized one; and anything much below 10 acres, a small one. Every well-to-do villager has a few acres, and the

standard by which a cultivator is judged is the number of ploughs he can command. This, however, is no true criterion as to the value of his farm, inasmuch as some kinds of crops, such as *biáli* rice and sugar-cane, require much more ploughing than others. In a holding consisting of two-crop and one-crop land in fair proportions, 6 acres are technically termed a 'plough of land,'—*i.e.*, the quantity which a husbandman with one plough and a single pair of bullocks can cultivate. A holding of 12 acres enables a Cuttack cultivator to live quite as well as a respectable shopkeeper, or as a person earning 16s. a month. His family can afford to eat more food than either of these two classes. One-half of the peasantry may be set down as really well off. One-fourth are permanently in debt to the village money-lender or the landlord. The remainder are just able to live. Able-bodied pauperism is unknown, except among the religious mendicants. The District seems to be steadily progressing. Vast sums of money have been spent on irrigation works, and much of it sinks into the country. The improvement has probably affected the mercantile and labouring classes more than the actual cultivators. Wages of agricultural day-labourers are generally paid in kind, and do not seem to have altered since 1850. The rate is about 12 to 15 lbs. of unhusked rice per diem. All labour, paid by money, has risen in price. Artisans now receive from 1¾d. to 2¼d. in the rural tracts, and 3¾d. a day in the towns; bricklayers earn from 4½d. to 6d. per diem. Roughly speaking, it may be said that labour fetches double in the towns what it does in the country; and that during the twenty-five years from 1850 to 1875, the rates of wages rose from 35 to 40 per cent.

Natural Calamities.—The calamities of Cuttack, as of all the other Orissa Districts, are floods and droughts. The former arise from sudden freshets of the rivers before they enter the District, and not from excessive rainfall within it. Between 1830 and 1876, flood has caused a general destruction of crops in eight years out of the forty-six. For a description of the protective works of Cuttack, see the previous sections on *Canals* and *Embankments*. Drought is more disastrous than flood, and when long protracted, has always been followed by famine. On five different occasions since 1850, drought has occurred on a sufficiently large scale to endanger the safety of the people. For an account of the great famine of 1866, see ORISSA.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Cuttack District are insignificant. Brass vessels, brass ornaments, and coarse cloth are the chief articles made. The total annual out-turn of the cotton looms is roughly valued at £30,000; the brass and copper work at £6000; the oil-pressing at £7600; the joiners' work at £8500. Silver filigree work, the speciality of Cuttack city, is confined to a very few hands. The salt manufacture has greatly declined in this District. In 1875-76, less than 1000 tons

were manufactured against a total consumption of 7407 tons, averaging 11 lbs. per head of the population. There is a considerable iron-smelting industry in the hill country to the south of Cuttack. The total annual out-turn of iron is estimated at £20,000.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—Till within the last few years, trade hardly existed in Orissa; but the improvement of False Point Harbour has recently opened a market for the surplus rice of the Province, and the sea-borne trade of Cuttack District is virtually that of FALSE POINT. During the seven years ending 1875-76, the total imports were valued at £652,800, having risen from £31,000 in 1869-70 to nearly £140,000 in 1875-76. The exports in the same period aggregated £618,609, having increased from £18,000 to £127,000. The chief road is the Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Ganjám, which enters the District from Balasor. From Cuttack city a branch proceeds due south to the town of Purí. Other important roads are those from Cuttack city to Chándbálí and Taldandá. The total length of all the means of communication was returned as follows in 1876:—Rivers, 527 miles; canals, 135 miles—total mileage of waterways, 662: first-class roads, 72 miles; second-class roads, 173; third-class roads, 336 miles—total mileage of roads, 581.

Administration.—For 1829-30, the first year in which Cuttack District had an existence in its present circumscribed limits, as distinct from Purí and Balasor, the gross revenue is returned at £139,642, and the gross expenditure at £114,438. In 1860-61, the gross revenue had increased to £202,867, and the disbursements to £193,882. In 1870-1871, the total income realized was £243,958, and the disbursements amounted to £223,659. In 1829-30, the land yielded £79,893; in 1870-71, £84,781. In 1829, Cuttack District contained 1509 estates, held by 2118 proprietors; by 1870-71, the number of estates had risen to 3571, and of proprietors to 9554. In 1805, when the jurisdiction of Cuttack included also the greater part of Balasor and Purí, the land revenue of the Province amounted to £121,904, or only one-third more than that of the single District of Cuttack in 1870. This land revenue was paid by 2275 estates, held by 2517 owners. At the present day, Cuttack District alone contains nearly double this number of estates, and quadruple the number of proprietors. Protection to person and property has increased still more rapidly. In 1816, there were only 4 courts, revenue and judicial, in the whole District. In 1850, the number rose to 11; in 1860, to 18; and in 1870, to 21. For police purposes, Cuttack is divided into 9 *thánás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police consisted of 578 men of all ranks. The municipal force for the protection of the three municipalities of Cuttack, Jájpur, and Kendrápára, which contain a total population of 72,313, was 117 strong. The village watch numbered 4744 in 1872. The total pro-

tective machinery of the District, therefore, consisted of 5439 officers and men; equal to an average of 1 man to every ·58 of a square mile as compared with the area, or 1 man to every 274 persons as compared with the population.

There are 4 prisons in Cuttack—viz. the District jail at the civil station, and lock-ups at the Subdivisional towns of Jájpur, Kendrápára, Jagatsinhpur. In 1872, the daily number of prisoners was as follows:—Civil, 5·76; under-trial, 10·90; labouring convicts, 219·21; non-labouring convicts, 5·79; total, 241·66, of whom 31·11 were females, averaging 1 male to every 3445 of the male population, and 1 female to every 24,730 of the female population. The total admissions during the year were 940; the discharges amounted to 710. The prison manufactures do not lessen the cost of the jails in any material degree. There is no extramural work.

The number of schools rose from 3 in 1856-57 to 50 in 1870-71, and the number of pupils from 168 to 2755 in the same period. By 1875, the number of inspected schools had further increased to 539, attended by 10,196 pupils. These figures show 1 school to every 5·9 square miles of the District area, and 6·8 pupils to every 1000 of the population. The Cuttack High School includes three departments—the college, the law department, and the *zilá* school; the students on the rolls on the 31st of March 1875 were 14, 2, and 191 respectively.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Orissa is the same as that of the southern Districts of Bengal. It may be divided into three seasons—the hot, commencing in March; the rainy, in the middle of June; and the cold, in the beginning of November. The Meteorological Department has stations at False Point Lighthouse, and at Cuttack town. The average annual rainfall during the twelve years previous to 1873, is returned at 54·25 inches. Intermittent fever is common throughout the year, and cholera always breaks out in the months of June, July, and August. Measles and small-pox are also prevalent. Cattle-disease of a fatal character often breaks out in Cuttack. There are two charitable dispensaries in the District, viz. the Cuttack Hospital and the Jájpur Dispensary.

Cuttack.—Principal or headquarters Subdivision of the above District, containing an area of 675 square miles, with 1042 villages and townships. Situated between 20° 2′ 45″ and 20° 42′ 0″ N. lat., and between 85° 35′ 0″ and 86° 19′ 0″ E. long. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 362,222; Muhammadans, 18,594; Buddhists, 19; Christians, 2133; 'others,' 8296; total, 391,264, viz. 189,848 males and 201,416 females. Average density of population, 579 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·54; houses per square mile, 113; persons per village, 375; persons per house, 5·1. The Subdivision comprises the two police circles (*thánás*) of Cuttack and Sálipur. It contained in 1870-71, 9 magisterial and

revenue courts, a regular police force of 225 of all ranks, besides 1114 village watchmen; total cost of the courts and police, £17,808.

Cuttack (*Kataka*, 'The Fort').—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Cuttack District, and capital city of the Province of Orissa; situated on the peninsula formed by the bifurcation of the Mahánadí, where it throws off the Kátjurí. Lat. 20° 29′ 4″ N., long. 85° 54′ 29″ E. The city was founded about 900 years ago by one of the kings of the Long-haired or Lion dynasty, and has continued to be the seat of Government to the present day. Its position as the key of the hill territory, and as the centre of the network of the Orissa canals, gives it both military and commercial importance. At present, however, Cuttack is mainly known in the world for its beautiful filigree work in gold and silver. The town contains a population of—Hindus, 40,849; Muhammadans, 7436; Christians, 1968; and 'others,' 625; total, 50,878, viz. 25,869 males and 25,009 females. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £2424; expenditure, £1727; average rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 1d. per head of the town population. The citadel of Cuttack, known as FORT BARABATI, is situated on the south bank of the Kátjurí river, opposite to the city. Taken by storm by the British on the conquest of the Province, in October 1803; but now in ruins.

Cutwá.—Subdivision and town, Bardwán District, Bengal.—*See* KATWA.

END OF VOLUME II.

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